

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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Educational News and Editorial Comment

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TOWARD OPTIMUM USE OF OUR HUMAN CAPITAL

THE University of Kentucky's Bureau of School Service has published a study of unusual significance for the country's welfare. It is a Bulletin of the Bureau with a longish title, *The Utilization of Potential College Ability Found in the June, 1940, Graduates of Kentucky High Schools*, which was prepared by Horace Leonard Davis. We refrain from reporting the procedures used in the investigation, which seem to have been valid for the purpose, and restrict quotation to the gist of the conclusions.

Forty-nine per cent, or an estimated 1,960 of the best college risks in the state, did not enrol in college, while 14 per cent, or an estimated 560 of the poorest risks, did enrol. It is apparent that the really serious aspect of this situation was the failure of the best risks to enrol in college.

Careful consideration of the data on place of residence, size of family, family income, per capita family income, socio-economic background, plans of the high-school gradu-

ates, etc., indicated that two factors seemed to be responsible for the failure of the majority of the best college risks, who did not go to college, to enrol. The same factors influenced the college attendance of the poor risks who did enrol. These two factors were economic status and the lack of proper guidance.

The following is said in elaborative discussion of the economic factor:

The one thousand ablest graduates of Kentucky high schools each year who are prevented from attending college by lack of money could be sent through college for approximately one-tenth of the amount which this state spends on highways each year. This conclusion was reached by assuming that an annual grant of \$500 would be ample to care for each of the 4,000 individuals who would be in college at the beginning of the fourth and each succeeding year of the program. Beginning with the fourth year, the annual cost would be \$2,000,000, which is about one-tenth of the approximate \$20,000,000 spent by the highway department annually.

The value of such a program over the years would be incalculable. The whole level of leadership in all walks of life would be

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raised. Many of these boys and girls are from the ranks and would doubtless accomplish much because they had been given a chance beyond their wildest dreams. Perhaps they could be imbued with the spirit of self-sacrifice in rendering public service and leadership in their life work in return for the state's assistance in educating them.

The investigation and conclusions prompt comment in two directions. The first of these concerns recurrent rumors to the effect that the military authorities, at the time of induction of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds, plan to identify by test the most promising 10 or 15 per cent, put them into uniform, and send them to certain existing higher institutions for post-induction training, the cost of the whole program to be borne by the Army. Announcement of intentions along this and other lines will probably have been made before this comment appears in print. One wonders whether such a plan, if carried out, will not lead the way to commitment in the post-war world to a similar policy for nonmilitary education, so that our society may derive all possible advantage from its human resources through having superior youth achieve all their potentialities.

The other comment concerns surprise at finding no reference in these conclusions to the extension of the movement toward free public junior colleges as an important means of overcoming the economic hindrance to attending college. The spread of junior colleges to all communities large enough to muster a desirable minimum enrolment would be, for the

state, a less costly method of offsetting the economic factor. For rural territory and communities smaller than those where establishment of junior colleges would be feasible, there might be some adaptation of the means proposed in Davis' study. Fostering the spread of junior colleges would have the additional advantage over dependence on higher institutions now in existence, in that these junior colleges would provide suitable programs for all youth of these ages, not merely for the selected minority who should be headed toward programs extending through senior-college years. Prior to the recent emergency, many persons of junior-college age, because of technological developments, were without employment. Occupational displacement that will inevitably follow the present World War, even if it should end within the year and despite all possible efforts to prevent or ameliorate such displacement, will be so formidable that pre-war unemployment will be small by comparison. So much the more imperative to project for the problem uncovered by Davis' investigation a solution more nearly in accord with the democratic gains that have been prophesied as a major outcome of the present conflict!

A DANGER AND AN OPPORTUNITY

IT IS now common knowledge that enrolments in most secondary and higher schools are off in serious proportions. A type of institution that has suffered most seriously in this respect, because of the particular age

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group it serves, is the junior college. A number of public and private units have already been discontinued. The drafting of young men of eighteen and nineteen now in progress threatens the existence of many more junior colleges. If vigorous steps to forestall discontinuance of junior colleges are not taken in many communities, the gains made at this level over a decade or more will be lost almost overnight. Because of the great obstacles that will be encountered in re-establishing discontinued units in the post-war period, persons in authority in such communities should do their utmost to see that at least a "skeleton organization" is maintained for the duration.

The daily papers, as this comment is being written, carry a news item from the United Press to the effect that the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators has taken action, recommending "war-time telescoping of Senior high school and Freshman college years to give youths a 'taste' of higher education before they become subject to induction under the teen-age draft act." Following are additional excerpts from the item.

Under the proposal, high-school Seniors would be admitted to college. At the successful completion of their college Freshman year, they would be graduated by the high school and given full credit for a year's work toward a university degree.

The plan would apply only to boys and

girls who rank high in scholarship. Its successful operation, the Commission said, calls for concessions on the part of both high schools and universities.

The recommendation is intended only for the duration of the war.

Any considerable compliance with the recommendation will go far to keep junior colleges, as well as other higher institutions, alive.

Mention was made in the foregoing item of the rumored plans of the military authorities to billet the most promising 10 or 15 per cent of the eighteen- and nineteen-year-old draftees in higher institutions for post-induction training. It may be hoped that these authorities will not overlook the almost ready-made suitability of the junior college for such a service. As an institution it has been set up to serve this particular age group. Many junior colleges have gone far beyond the preparatory programs and have a breadth of terminal offering and staffs and facilities that make these units sufficiently flexible to meet the needs of post-induction training. In several respects the junior colleges can more easily meet these needs than can the great majority of higher institutions, in which the work of the first two years has been restricted to programs in preparation for professional curriculums and other advanced specialization. It is to be hoped that the military authorities will not decide against junior colleges because only a small proportion maintain dormitories in which inductees can be quartered.

CONCERNING CREDIT FOR MILITARY SERVICE

UNDER the caption "Important," G. W. Rosenlof, secretary of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, on November 7, 1942, sent out the following statement to member-institutions. The question of credit for service in the Army and the Navy will, at best, be an annoying one, and faculties of educational institutions will do well to anticipate some of the difficulties by formulating carefully considered policies to be applied as cases emerge.

The Executive Committee of the North Central Association at its meeting on January 12, 1942, drafted a statement of policy that was sent to all member-institutions. That statement encouraged the secondary schools and colleges to co-operate in every way possible in the war effort. It also stressed the importance of safeguarding the quality of work that is done.

Various developments in our national situation since January 12, 1942, have given rise to new problems in secondary and higher education. One of particular importance at present pertains to the granting of academic credit to men and women on the basis of educational experience acquired in the armed services, and the necessity of developing at an early date a definite plan for determining and allocating such credit.

The two most obvious general policies that can be followed in adopting such a plan are: (1) the granting of a constant amount of "blanket credit" to all such individuals without any regard to their actual educational achievement; (2) the granting of credit to individuals on some such basis as competence actually demonstrated through performance on specially prepared examinations.

The first of these policies was followed

quite generally in World War I. As a result of that experience, the detrimental effects of this policy are so generally known that they need not be set forth here. The Executive Committee, therefore, urges its member-institutions to avoid the adoption of a policy of granting blanket credit.

The second policy is sound in principle in that it recognizes a difference in the educational benefits derived from military service and from instruction received through various avenues during the period of service. Moreover, the adoption of this policy is feasible because agencies and techniques for measuring differential achievement are now available.

For example, a special committee reporting to the Joint Army and Navy Committee on Welfare and Recreation has already drafted proposals which in effect are as follows:

1. That credit not to exceed one-half semester be granted upon presentation of evidence of having completed the basic training course ordinarily included in the first thirteen weeks in the armed forces. This credit may be assigned to physical education, hygiene, military training, or electives.

2. That the student be given classification in secondary school or college appropriate to demonstrated intellectual maturity and achievement as measured by examinations covering educational experiences and instruction in the armed forces. Each institution may provide its own criteria for determining the standing given the student. The armed forces stand ready to develop appropriate examinations through which to provide institutions with evidence as to the educational accomplishments of men and women leaving the service who plan to continue their education.

3. That the extent to which a student is judged to have completed requirements in his field of concentration be determined by achievement examinations in that field. Here again, the armed forces stand ready to

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develop appropriate examinations through which to provide institutions with evidence as to the educational accomplishments of men and women leaving the service who plan to continue their education.

The Executive Committee indorses a plan of this type.

In order that the military agencies may be encouraged to develop a program for measuring and reporting the achievement of the men and women under their direction, and further, in order that institutions may forestall the demands for blanket credit for military service, each institution is urged to review its policies and to adopt a definite plan concerning the admission and placement of students returning from service. Institutions are requested to give particular attention to the problems that will arise in the admission of students whose secondary-school credentials will include credit granted on the basis of demonstrated achievement rather than courses completed.

THE PROBLEM OF PRE-FLIGHT AERONAUTICS

THE suddenness of the demand that high schools give instruction in pre-flight aeronautics was certain to be followed by the early emergence of problems of discharging the responsibility with full effectiveness. During the few months since the demand arose, there has been considerable fumbling in the efforts to meet it. A brief article, appearing in the October issue of the *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin*, from which the following quotation is taken, both sums up the problems encountered and includes cogent suggestions for solving them. It is by Professor Francis D. Curtis of that institution.

Pre-flight aeronautics, as it has been worked out, is a technical course. It contains

part of the content of the conventional high-school courses in physics and mathematics and, in addition, much other technical, scientific, and mathematical material. As a result the course is probably at least as difficult as any other in the entire high-school program of studies.

The grade placement of pre-flight aeronautics, therefore, is not a difficult problem; it is dictated by the technical nature of the course. Content as difficult as this must, of necessity, be offered as late in the high-school program as may be practicable. Other problems relating to pre-flight aeronautics, however, are less readily solved. Moreover, in weighing the probable success of the attempts of secondary schools to teach this course effectively, one is confronted with some unpleasant considerations:

1. *There are not enough teachers qualified to teach pre-flight aeronautics.* This fact became obvious early in the work of formulating the course content. Consequently workshops and special subject-matter courses were offered in various institutions of higher learning last summer in the effort to train a sufficient number of teachers to meet the demands which were certain to arise. But several influences, prominent among which were a nebulousness of opinion with respect to what the new content should or would be, and an unwillingness or an inability on the part of the many teachers to rearrange their summer plans so that they might secure the needed training, nullified to a large extent this emergency-teacher-training program.

2. *There is confusion with respect to the types of pupils who should be recruited for the course.* One would not question the authoritative statement that there are jobs in the war-aeronautics program that can be filled adequately by men and women of I.Q. 80. But one must reject the implied corollary that all pupils with I.Q.'s of 80 or more should be encouraged to enrol in pre-flight aeronautics. The content of this course as presented in outlines and textbooks offers a sturdy challenge to the most capable pupils

in the secondary schools. Therefore, to follow the practice advocated by at least one influential leader in the pre-flight-training movement, of recruiting for this course all pupils who can be influenced to elect it, would result in the failure of most of these pupils, if standards were maintained. The frustration and discouragement of these pupils might jeopardize the subsequent local success of the program; for when their dissatisfaction had become disseminated, as it inevitably would be, throughout student body and community, there would develop a diminishing enthusiasm for, and a less willing acceptance of, such pre-aeronautics training. It would seem, then, that the success of this program of training rests primarily upon selecting the right pupils to receive it.

In the large secondary schools the problem of offering the course is not especially serious. Such schools have, along with other requirements, a sufficient number of pupils to provide the necessary selection. Moreover, they can add the course to their extensive programs of studies without dislocating them. Yet, even in the larger high schools in this state, the common practice is to teach pre-flight aeronautics to only one section of highly selected pupils.

In the small schools, providing the course in pre-flight aeronautics is discouragingly difficult. With their small student bodies and limited faculties, such schools cannot add the course to their already full programs of studies. Also, they cannot easily substitute it for another course which the community has come to expect and demand. Furthermore, they cannot make the courses in physics or mathematics which they ordinarily offer an acceptable substitute for pre-flight aeronautics by merely "stiffening" them. For these and probably other reasons the prospect that the small secondary school can, within its own unsupplemented resources, contribute effectively to the technical part of the "air-conditioning" program is most unpromising. Yet, in every small school there are some boys and girls who are

capable of learning the desired subject matter and whose abilities should be made available in this national emergency. And there can be little doubt that the need for aviators is sufficiently acute that every boy and girl who can assimilate this pre-flight training should receive it.

In the light of these difficulties, what can be done to promote pre-flight aeronautics in the secondary schools? What can be done to provide the needed technical training of sufficient numbers recruited from that relatively small proportion of high-school pupils who can meet the rigorous requirements? Several suggestions seem to possess more or less promise:

1. Let us organize sections in pre-flight aeronautics by combining recruits from several or many small high schools. Let us urge the immediate formulation and inauguration of plans for transporting from the small high schools to designated centers the limited numbers of pupils who are capable of achieving the desired goals of the course. In spite of the limitations on travel imposed by the war, the need for pre-flight training of future aviators is so urgent that it seems reasonable to expect the state or the national government to provide the transportation necessary to insure the success of the plan here proposed.

2. Let us immediately take steps to improve the competence of those who must teach pre-flight aeronautics. However suitable and effective the available textbooks may prove to be, the teachers must be competent to supplement the texts with additional content and with new materials as these are developed. It seems reasonable to expect the universities and colleges to provide needed in-service training for these teachers. It seems logical to look to them for the establishment of centers throughout the state where for longer or shorter periods, determined by needs, experts from their faculties can provide basic and supplementary training.

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ry into effect plans for increasing the numbers of women teachers who are competent to give the pre-aeronautics course. At present the number of women who are teaching this course is relatively small. It seems certain that in the not-too-distant future many men who now are offering the work will be drawn from the schools for one reason or another connected with the war effort. It is prudent, therefore, to canvass *now* the available force of women teachers in order to locate both those who are already competent and those who, with the amount of training which it is practicable to give them, can be made competent to replace the men teachers as need arises.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE innovational and other activities mentioned here have been or are being carried on in seven widely scattered schools or systems. Four of the seven, the first to be described, are not a part of the schools' war effort. The three others are reported below as "A Wartime 'Here and There.'"

Changes in vocational high schools The following description of changes in the vocational high schools in Cincinnati appeared in the September number of *Better Teaching*, a periodical published under public-school auspices of the city. Of special importance are the lengthening and the broadening of the vocational curriculums and their better integration with the general secondary-school programs.

The vocational high schools begin this school year re-housed and reorganized into four school units. The program of studies in these schools has been extended from two to four years, and reorganized with the voca-

tional subjects concentrated in Grades XI and XII, with Grades IX and X devoted primarily to basic, preparatory, and exploratory courses of a more general nature.

The program is so planned that pupils who have completed the ninth and tenth grades in any standard high school may transfer to any of the vocational high schools at the end of the tenth grade without loss of time or credit. Likewise, pupils may transfer from a vocational high school at the end of the tenth grade to a comprehensive high school without loss of time or credit.

In addition to the four-year program in the vocational high schools, special two-year and short-term courses are open to older pupils who will reach the age of employability before they can complete the full four-year program. By attending summer school for three summers, a pupil who so desires may complete the four-year program in three years.

The Central Vocational High School, located in several buildings at the site of the old Automotive High School on Iowa Street, includes the units formerly called the Automotive, Electrical, Mechanical, and Building High Schools. It has an enrolment this year of approximately fourteen hundred pupils and is staffed by about fifty teachers. Its program of studies is organized with nine divisions, including aeronautics, automotive, air conditioning, allied-construction industries, communications, electrical, machine, machine design, and pattern-making.

The Commercial Vocational High School has been transferred to Woodward High School and organized as an integral part of that school. The program of studies for the commercial vocational pupils there prepares for four types of work: bookkeeping (and accounting), secretarial (and stenographic service), general clerical, and distributive (selling) occupations. There are about six hundred vocational commercial pupils enrolled at Woodward, with about twenty-five teachers assigned to the vocational divisions of the school.

The East Vocational High School, located in the old Walnut Hills High School Building at Ashland and Burdett Avenues, comprises what were formerly the Sewing High School, Retail Selling High School, and the Tailoring High School. It is starting out with an enrolment of about four hundred pupils. The program of studies for this school is organized into three divisions: clothing trades (and allied industries), distributive occupations (merchandising and selling), and commercial foods (food preparation and service).

The Printing Vocational High School remains at its same location, McMillan Street and Essex Place, but its program of studies has been extended to four years. The work of this school includes training for over thirty occupations in the field of graphic arts. There are courses to train hand compositors, machine compositors, pressmen, offset lithographers and photographers, advertising printers, and many other types of workers for whom occupational opportunities are numerous and remunerative.

A curriculum guide Santa Barbara County Curriculum Guide for Teachers in Secondary Schools is the title of Volume IV of the publications growing out of a five-year "Curriculum Development Program" in that California county. The Foreword, signed by Muriel Edwards, county superintendent of schools, and Grayson N. Kefauver, dean of the School of Education at Stanford University, states that the materials presented in the book should provide aid to faculty groups and to individual teachers in planning the program of the high school. The belief is expressed that all teachers and parents in the county should receive benefit from a careful reading of the volume and that it may also "be of wider in-

terest to educational workers as an illustration of a plan of curriculum development used by the staff of the schools of one region." It is put forward as reflecting "the thinking and planning being done by teachers and administrators in the high schools of the county, and the practices described are already incorporated in the program of some of the schools."

The content includes a statement of general philosophy; description of a plan of organization of the curriculum; description of procedure and problems adapted especially for use in the core course; a consideration of the curriculum in the various subject fields; and treatments of certain problems, such as evaluation and public relations, which are of concern to all teachers.

A novel annual report Around the Clock with Sewanhaka is the title of the annual report of the Sewanhaka Central High School District 2, of which A. T. Stanforth is principal and which has Floral Park, New York, as the post-office address. It is an attractively illustrated document prepared by a committee of the faculty with Walter H. Thompson as chairman. The report indicates certain high lights in the various school subjects and supplies information concerning a number of additional activities of the school and community, among them nutrition for health defense, adult education, parent-teacher association, community awards, and community music.

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A report to patrons The *School Review* has previously mentioned brochures descriptive of curriculum improvements in the Wells High School of Chicago, of which Paul R. Pierce is principal. These brochures are in the nature of reprints from the *Correlator*, the annual of the school. Earlier brochures have carried the titles "Now It May Be Told," "Seven Pillars of Wisdom," and "Wells Educates for American Defense." The reprint for 1942 is called "Shaping High School to Youth." It deals with efforts at extension and improvement of the curriculum by the co-operation of teachers, pupils, and leaders in the community. The booklet is profusely illustrated.

A WARTIME "HERE AND THERE"

Growth of work-study programs Under the headings "War Opens Jobs for Pupils" and "Schools' Co-operative Education Program Doubles in Year's Time," the *New York Sun* tells of the growth of enrolment in curriculums in which pupils spend alternate weeks in school and in employment. Following is the *Sun's* story.

The emergence of employment opportunities for boys and girls of high-school and post-high-school age has more than doubled the co-operative education program being conducted in New York City's high schools, according to a report issued at Board of Education headquarters.

More than 2,200 students are enrolled in co-operative courses, in which they alternate a week in school and a week on a paid job

during the last two years of high school. While at work, the students earn an aggregate of \$8,000 to \$9,000 a week.

Miss Grace Brennan, in charge of the co-operative education classes, said that last year 1,000 students were enrolled in the courses, which were then offered in three schools. Seven schools now have co-operative classes for the 2,200 students, she said.

Notwithstanding the increased number of co-operative students, there are still vacancies in the business world which the schools cannot fill, Miss Brennan said. She recalled President Roosevelt's recent appeal to schools to contribute to the war effort by assisting employers in meeting manpower shortages created by military inductions and the growth of war-production plants. . . .

The co-operative plan has been a feature of the New York City school system for more than twenty-five years.

Adaptations in wartime The first number of the *Baltimore Bulletin of Education* of the current school year includes expositions of several developments closely related to the war effort. Among titles of articles are: "The High-School Aviation Program," "High-School Victory Corps," "The Victory Summer School," "The Aircraft Mechanics School," "Physical Fitness—an Educational Priority," "Geography in the Air Age," and "Home Economics in Time of War."

Vitalizing French In the October *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, Louis Golomb, of the Fort Hamilton High School of that city, describes, under the caption "A 'Free French' Syllabus," the efforts of the

French department in his school to keep foreign-language instruction vital and to utilize the opportunities of the subject to "teach democracy." We quote brief portions of the article to indicate something of the method followed.

There are two approaches as to method, through foreign-language media and through presenting for discussion, in English, the historical and cultural nexus of the sister republics. The two types of activity may dovetail, and indeed ought to be made to do so wherever correlation is possible.

For foreign-language work, a tentative vocabulary list approaching five hundred words has been compiled, of which some two hundred appear below [the list is omitted here], comprising a nomenclature of war and political terms drawn mainly from the jargon of newsprint and airwave, that Esperanto of international journalism and radio. . . . To organize these diverse expressions into some coherent form for language work, it seemed advisable to group related words into their natural categories, forming topical units such as Camp Life, Weapons, Fall of France, War Aims, etc. These divisions are of course arbitrary, and any single word might serve equally well under several headings. . . .

With the business of grouping completed, each of the topical units can then be subdivided for distribution among the grades according to the level of difficulty. This will insure a cumulative vocabulary list touching all the topical units for each consecutive term. It need hardly be pointed out that to maintain a live vocabulary we shall have to be vigilant in weeding out expressions that have lost their topical flavor, to be replaced with words forever newly created by History's spotlight flashing upon a name, a place, or an event.

We have come to the final step of embodying these separate words into suitable language forms so we may make effective and inspiring use of the new vocabulary. . . .

The compiling and use of an "actualité" vocabulary does not yet fully satisfy our aim of teaching democracy through the French lesson. In addition, therefore, we shall have to allow for periodic, organized discussion in English of French-American history and current events, to which, in fact, a section of the vocabulary points. We should take care here not to pre-empt the proper sphere of the social-science and English departments. Certainly, language teachers will find themselves equipped through professional studies and travel contacts to make their unique contribution to student enlightenment and morale.

USEFULNESS IN PAPER COVERS

AMONG recent publications of the federal government through the United States Office of Education are three of special importance to secondary schools.

The first of these to have been distributed is *Some Principles of Consumer Education at the Secondary School Level* (Pamphlet No. 94), which bears the subtitle "A Report of a Conference on Consumer Education in Secondary Schools, June 3, 4, and 5, 1940, Washington, D.C." The content of this publication departs from the usual deadly report of conference proceedings by being presented in a form directly usable by persons concerned with the development of programs of consumer education. This result is accomplished by presenting the gist of the deliberations in systematic form and subordinating the report of "Discussion" to the systematization. The sections of the report, following the introductory division, are headed "Assumptions upon Which

Programs of Consumer Education Should Be Based," "Scope and Minimal Essentials of Consumer Education at the Secondary School Level," "Methods of Organizing Consumer Education in Secondary Schools," "Learning Activities and Teaching Methods in Consumer Education in Secondary Schools," "Sources of Materials for Consumer Education in Secondary Schools and Some Criteria for Their Evaluation," and "Pre-service and In-service Teacher Training for Consumer Education in Secondary Schools." The publication includes also references to bibliographies and sources of current information in the field. Although the conference antedated by a year and more our entrance into the armed conflict, the fact that consumers' problems are accentuated in a war economy makes the content of this pamphlet more timely than when it was first prepared.

Guidance Problems in Wartime is Pamphlet 18 in the "Education and National Defense Series." It was written by Warren K. Layton, director of guidance in the Detroit (Michigan) schools, with the co-operation and assistance of Marguerite W. Zapoleon, specialist in the Occupational Information and Guidance Service in the Office of Education. Content of the pamphlet is indicated by the following section headings: "The Need for Guidance in the Emergency," "Problems of Educational Progress," "Problems of Vocational Planning," "Problems of Health," "Problems of Personal and Social Adjustment," and

"The Integration of Guidance Services." There are also two pages of "Suggestions for Reading."

A recent addition to the "Occupational Information and Guidance Series" is Number 9, entitled *Military Service: Army, Army Air Forces, Navy, Marines, Coast Guard, Nurses*. Authorship is credited to Walter J. Greenleaf and Franklin R. Zeran, specialists in the Occupational Information and Guidance Service. Assistant Commissioner for Vocational Education J. C. Wright says in a foreword that requests from many sources have been received "for a single leaflet on the Army, the Navy, and the various branches of the armed services showing qualifications, restrictions, and requirements for entrance" and that young men and women "interested in entering military service either as a career or for the duration, plus six months, will find answers to many of their questions in this bulletin." It was written after consultation with representatives of the several armed services and is in a form that can be put directly into the hands of young persons. The publication is issued as Vocational Division Bulletin Number 221.

Copies of these publications may be obtained by purchase from the Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C.—*Guidance Problems in Wartime* at twenty cents and the other two at ten cents each.

LEONARD V. KOOS

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by LEONARD V.

KOOS, professor of secondary education at the University of Chicago. HAROLD SPEARS, principal of Highland Park High School, Highland Park, Illinois, reviews problems arising from the high school's wartime curriculum, which led a group of administrators to inquire whether the admission offices of thirty-two colleges and universities will accept for entrance the new nonacademic courses necessitated by the war effort; replies from thirteen institutions are included in the first part of the article. HARL R. DOUGLASS, director of the College of Education at the University of Colorado, discusses a threefold program, consisting of part-time attendance, accelerated training for capable pupils, and pre-induction education, which he urges secondary schools to adopt as a means of meeting the national manpower situation. ROBERT B. WEAVER, superintendent of the public schools at Goshen, Indiana, formerly a teacher in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago, and KENNETH J. REHAGE, teacher in the Laboratory Schools at the University of Chicago, present a detailed account of the objectives, the co-operative planning procedure, and the content of a four-

year program in the social studies. IVOL SPAFFORD, formerly assistant to the director, in charge of curriculum revision, General College, University of Minnesota, at present devotes her time to writing and to work as a curriculum consultant. In the current issue of this journal Miss Spafford examines the unique contributions which a reorganized program of home economics can make to education in wartime. BERNARD D. KARPINOS, associate statistician of the United States Public Health Service, discusses the contemporary educational status of American youth, classified according to age, sex, race, and family income. The selected references on secondary-school instruction have been compiled by LEONARD V. KOOS.

Reviewers of books PAUL C. REINERT, S.J., instructor in the Department of Education at St. Louis University. ROBERT L. McCAUL, instructor in remedial reading in the College of the University of Chicago. DONALD M. MACKENZIE, technical assistant to the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. E. B. McCUE, principal of Superior Junior High School, Welch, West Virginia.

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HOW THE COLLEGE ADMISSION OFFICE WILL RECEIVE THE HIGH SCHOOL'S WARTIME CURRICULUM. I

HAROLD SPEARS

Highland Park High School, Highland Park, Illinois

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HIGH schools all over the country face the challenge of shifting from a peacetime to a wartime curriculum. Straight thinkers know that a few extra-class additions or some minor curricular tinkering will not meet the emergency and that the curriculum movement of the past ten years is now nearing a real climax. Educators talk a good war program, but can they produce it? Will loyalties to traditional offerings and requirements smother out the new growth?

One of the most potent invitations to get on the band wagon of an all-out war effort is the High-School Victory Corps plan, released from the United States Office of Education and indorsed by military and governmental as well as educational leaders. The proposal carries the spirit of emergency change but naturally does not carry a blueprint. The curriculum problem is still a local privilege—and rightfully should remain so.

The plan for the High-School Victory Corps, as well as common sense, demands that a high-school pupil's program reveal probable immediate and future usefulness to the nation's war effort and emphasizes that the high school cannot go on doing "busi-

ness as usual." We must be willing to set aside for the moment some of the courses representing the more general or cultural values of American life in order that we may concentrate on the practical program that will enable the nation to carry on the battle which is being waged to preserve those same cultural values. The war effort invites a more natural serving of the school program than that given in the short-period doses now typifying American secondary education.

One curriculum maxim which stands out strongly in these days of refresher mathematics courses is the old favorite that you cannot add to a pupil's already full program without taking something away. Then the old loyalties, the vested interests, and the educational misconceptions rear their mossy backs, and the reformer finds his energies deflected from the national struggle to his own private battle on the home front.

PROBLEMS CONFRONTED IN CHANGING THE CURRICULUM

There are many of us who will over-emphasize the pressures against wartime change and hide our heads in the sands of complacency. It is so much easier to indorse the existing school

program as the best that can be done than to make the effort called for by effective change. There are others of us who will go to the other extreme and, in our eagerness to invite change, will underestimate the strength of the restrictions that bind our schools. Practical school administrators will recognize the restricting elements but will work to maneuver around them rather than to accept them as absolute barriers.

Typical practical problems of the kind just indicated are these:

1. *There is the problem of securing more flexible requirements for graduation*, which will enable the school to do such things as give credit recognition to out-of-school work experience and release the older pupils, with diplomas, on a staggered system rather than to turn them all out together at "graduation time," if their possible productive war service, either military or nonmilitary, seems to call for it.

Holding a boy or girl until June for graduation when the maturity and the ability that the out-of-school war effort calls for are apparent in December may soon hint of lack of patriotism. The high school's wartime program must have a direct relationship to the nation's manpower shortage and, when once under way, must show this connection.

When a long war promises to discourage a return to high school for graduation after demobilization, an emancipation proclamation is invited on the part of state authorities in respect to certain graduation require-

ments in order that local administrators can treat fairly the individual cases of the older boys who threaten to leave before meeting all the requirements for a diploma. It is quite likely that some of the courses now required by a state for graduation are not among the essentials in wartime.

2. *Another problem is found in the usual quantitative course requirements* (clock hours, unit-and-credit time requirements, etc., tied closely into the Carnegie unit-and-credit system) of such accrediting agencies as the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. As soon as the school seeks to cut down time in a particular area to make a place for a new war course in the pupil's program, these requirements are encountered.

Especially for Juniors and Seniors, it may be desirable to cut down some of the general courses, such as English, history, and foreign language, to three periods a week instead of five, in the face of the pressure of urgent war courses. Under present standards such a step could not be taken in the average school without sacrificing credits needed for graduation or for college.

When we consider training for specific types of war work, the customary equating of courses by the hour-and-credit Carnegie system loses whatever glamour it may have been retaining in recent years. A typical problem faced by a high school is this: A Senior boy needs four units to graduate. He is tempted to leave school to take a position in a near-by war-production

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plant. Another boy is in a similar situation. Can the school team up these two on an alternating work-and-school plan, whereby they hold one job between them in the plant throughout their Senior year and thus graduate at the usual time in addition to helping the country's manpower needs? Do the schools have the right to determine how many clock hours a pupil needs to spend in a particular course to receive credit?

3. *Another difficulty is the problem of satisfying the nation's war needs in a curricular fashion and, at the same time, satisfying traditional college-admission requirements.* The best preparation for participation in the war effort may have little in common with preparation to meet college-entrance requirements. It is this problem of college admission that will be treated in the remainder of this article.

As the pinch of manpower on both the military and the home fronts is felt these next few months, it may be expected that more and more youth, girls as well as boys, will delay college entrance in favor of immediate contribution to war work. Of course the eighteen-year-old draft is automatically turning boys away from the college door. However, many of these same boys and girls will maintain their hope of eventually attending college and thus will want to be sure that their high-school courses meet college-entrance requirements, even though that entrance be delayed.

The commercial, the home economics, and the industrial arts are three

departments of the high school that have much in common with a girl's desire to hold the home front as the men shift more and more into military service. Industrial arts, especially, has much to offer the boy in his preparation for war service. On the other hand, these same departments have not been attractive to the average college admission officer. This third problem of the high school asks the college to place the war effort before its faith in particular subjects and thus to help the high-school youth who wants to go all-out for victory but does not wish, in doing so, to jeopardize his chances for college entrance.

AN INQUIRY TO THE COLLEGES

The Suburban League is a group of seven high schools, bordering Chicago on the north and west, originally banded together for interscholastic athletic purposes. However, the principals meet frequently to discuss other matters of common concern. Naturally the first meeting this year pointed toward wartime curriculum changes. The college-admission problem loomed large, and the action represented by the following letter and the replies to it that are printed here was begun then. The following letter stating the high school's case was sent to a group of thirty-two colleges and universities.

September 30, 1942

Director of Admissions
X College

DEAR SIR:

I am writing in behalf of the seven Chicago suburban schools and the school administrators whose names appear at the close of

this letter. Together our schools enrol almost 25,000 high-school boys and girls. We are asking your professional consideration of a curriculum problem that faces our schools in this section, due to the war. In brief, it is this:

1. We appreciate the fact that we are in a war of survival demanding an all-out war effort on the part of the schools as well as the nation as a whole. As public-school principals and superintendents we are anxious to serve our public trust by sending out boys and girls who are trained to carry out specific tasks that are demanded on the military front and the home front.

2. Not only are national military, civic, and educational leaders indorsing a wartime school program, but parents are asking the same. However, the latter are hesitant to sacrifice the chances of their children getting into the colleges of their selection.

3. Such subjects as mathematics and the sciences not only meet college-entrance requirements but meet wartime curriculum needs admirably in the case of those students who can profit by them.

4. However, many of the typical college-preparatory courses that we recognize as of great cultural value, seem to lack the practical demands of the nation's all-out war effort, and many of those courses that are being mentioned most frequently as of practical wartime value have not found common acceptance as college-preparatory courses in the past. Among the latter are the following, many of which would train the girls to take over home-front positions formerly held by those now in military and other governmental service.

Home nursing	Fundamentals of shop-work
Nurse's helper	Mechanical drawing
Consumer buying	Blueprint-reading
Care of clothing	Radio repair
Fire and gas course	Automotive mechanics
First aid	Code practice and typing
Fundamentals of machines	Physical fitness
Welding	Photography
Foods	

Clothing
Home canning
Agriculture

Nutrition
Child care
Typing
Shorthand

In behalf of our schools' effort to help preserve our nation by making those school changes that seem most practical, we are asking, in the case of students who enter your college from our schools, if you will grant us the right to substitute wartime courses for some of those that you have in the past set up as admission requirements. This privilege would hold in the case of those students who go through our high schools during the war years. We would gladly assume any responsibility that you might care to shift to us in respect to determining which of our graduates are of the caliber that your school has asked in the past.

I will appreciate an early reply since my report back to the seven schools is due soon, and it is urgent that we act in this war effort. We hope to be able to cite your action as evidence of the colleges' willingness to go along with the high schools in their wartime program.

Respectfully yours,

HAROLD SPEARS, *Principal*

HIGHLAND PARK HIGH SCHOOL
HIGHLAND PARK, ILLINOIS

JOHN W. THALMAN, *Superintendent*, Waukegan Township High School, Waukegan, Illinois

EUGENE YOUNGERT, *Superintendent*, Oak Park and River Forest Township High School, Oak Park, Illinois

E. R. SIFERT, *Superintendent*, Proviso Township High School, Maywood, Illinois

MATTHEW P. GAFFNEY, *Superintendent*, New Trier Township High School, Winnetka, Illinois

FRANCIS L. BACON, *Superintendent*, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois

W. P. MACLEAN, *Superintendent*, J. Sterling Morton Township High School, Cicero, Illinois

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The institutions to which this letter was sent are listed below:

Amherst College	Pembroke College
Bryn Mawr College	(in Brown University)
Carleton College	Princeton University
University of Chicago	Purdue University
Cornell University	Radcliffe College
Dartmouth College	Randolph-Macon
Denison University	Woman's College
De Pauw University	Smith College
Harvard University	Stanford University
University of Illinois	Swarthmore College
University of Iowa	Sweet Briar College
Lawrence College	Vassar College
University of Michigan	Wabash College
Mills College	Wellesley College
Mount Holyoke College	Wells College
Northwestern University	University of Wisconsin
Ohio State University	Yale University

In responses from the colleges two distinct attitudes were noted: (1) an appreciation of the earnestness of the high schools in the war effort and a willingness to co-operate in resolving the accompanying problem of college-entrance requirements and (2) a denial of the war effort as a curriculum problem, as evidenced by the intention of maintaining the curricular *status quo* of peacetimes. In between these two extreme positions were those colleges that revealed indecision, failed to state their exact position, delayed in answering the inquiry, or otherwise did not establish themselves in either classification mentioned.

The replies from the college admission offices are discussed according to this classification, the position of a

particular college having been determined after careful consideration of the letter received. Excerpts from the letters, and at times the complete letters, are reproduced to enable the reader to make his own interpretation. The reporting of this study anticipates the need for this information on the part of other high schools facing the same problem.

COLLEGES WILLING TO CO-OPERATE

It is assured that the following of the thirty-two institutions will recognize the high school's curricular war program as legitimate schooling: Carleton College, University of Chicago, Dartmouth College, Denison University, University of Iowa, Lawrence College, University of Michigan, Mills College, Pembroke College (in Brown University), Princeton University, Stanford University, University of Wisconsin, and Yale University.

Among the reactions from these schools are the following:

CARLETON COLLEGE: Carleton College, during the war emergency, will gladly co-operate with high schools in accepting for admission credits in courses not ordinarily so accepted. The College will waive its ordinary requirements for admission most readily for exceptional students whose college success can be predicted on the basis of excellent natural abilities and high performance in high school. . . . You may be sure that Carleton is willing to go along with the high schools in their wartime program.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO: We are very much interested in the program which you propose to offer in connection with the war effort, and we appreciate your bringing the project to our attention. It is not the policy of the University of Chicago to dictate in any

way the program of secondary schools. We accept the graduates of accredited high schools who meet our standards of admission without question as to the content of the program on the basis of which the high school granted a diploma. We are sure that in making your plans for the new program you propose to combine a reasonable distribution of the subject matter normally found in a college-preparatory course. . . . There are two requirements which this office may not waive: two years of high-school mathematics and two years of a foreign language. . . . We shall be happy to co-operate with you in every way.

DARTMOUTH COLLEGE: Under the circumstances we are free to decide on each applicant without being concerned about the technicalities of credit and basing our judgment on the most important factor which is simply a question as to whether or not a student is adequately prepared to handle the program of courses that he will have to take as a Liberal Arts student at Dartmouth. . . . You may count on Dartmouth's co-operation in any program that you and your fellow administrators decide to follow, and you may be sure that in the future, as in the past, the principal basis for determining whether or not a student is going to be accepted for admission to the college will be the recommendation and report that is submitted by the school principal and the secondary-school faculty.

DENISON UNIVERSITY: For the duration, an applicant who ranks in the upper half of his graduating class in an accredited high school may be admitted without regard to pattern of studies [taken in high school] provided he is recommended by his principal as qualified for liberal arts college work and meets the other requirements for admission.

UNIVERSITY OF IOWA: Our entrance requirements to the University require that a student complete 3 units of English, $1\frac{1}{2}$ units of Social Studies, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ units elected from courses in English, foreign languages, social studies, mathematics, and science. The re-

maining 6 units may be anything which the graduating high school counts toward graduation. It is the assumption that these courses are offered regularly as part of the high-school pattern, subject to the same or similar conditions of instruction and teacher preparation.

In the list of courses on page 2, I notice courses in Consumer Buying, Fundamentals of Machines, Welding, Foods, Clothing, Mechanical Drawing, Automotive Mechanics, Nutrition, Typing, and Shorthand, all of which we have been regularly accepting in this miscellaneous group. Certain courses in Agriculture have been accepted in the science group. I see no reason why if the other courses which you mention are taught on an equal basis, that if the nine specified units are completed satisfactorily that the additional six miscellaneous cannot be made up of whatever you may accept toward graduation.

LAWRENCE COLLEGE: We are quite aware of the problem that faces public-school principals and are quite anxious to co-operate with you in any way. As you know, Lawrence sometime ago went from a quantitative to a qualitative requirement for admission. We did this because it seemed to us, on the basis of past experience, that the quality of work done in high school was a more accurate predictor of success in college than any particular pattern of courses. Thus, the shift in your curriculum would not affect the entrance of your students at Lawrence.

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN: We have read with much interest your letter concerning the action of the seven suburban high schools of Chicago and the program of work which you have adopted for the benefit of your boys and girls who are planning to continue with their training in definite preparation for war service. We heartily appreciate your action in this matter and are glad indeed to report that the colleges and universities will undoubtedly respond generously to your efforts for the development of young people in further preparation for war serv-

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ice. . . . Any work allowed toward graduation from an accredited high school will apply at Michigan to the extent of one-third of the fifteen units required.

MILLS COLLEGE: Your letter concerning a curriculum problem affecting your schools in your particular section of Illinois and which in turn affects the admission requirements of a college has been of interest to Mills. We are conscious of the general and specific questions which arise now because of the many ramifications of the war situation.

The general question and your clear summary of it have been submitted to our Board of Conference, which considers such questions of policy. They have instructed me to answer your letter and say that during the emergency we shall temporarily accept such courses as you have mentioned, for inclusion in the three units of elective subjects which may be listed, in addition to the twelve academic units, to make up a total of fifteen high-school credits. . . .

I should also like to inform you that the faculty of the college is giving consideration to the question of including a larger proportion of elective subjects in the total fifteen units which are required for entrance. I hope that this will be of service to you in adjusting your curriculum to wartime requirements.

PEMBROKE (IN BROWN UNIVERSITY): I am heartily in sympathy with the attitude of the school administrators whose names appeared at the close of your letter of September 30 toward the adjustment of school curricula to meet the war effort. As you know, Pembroke College has been willing always to give entrance credit for certain courses not recognized as college-preparatory subjects, provided that these courses are acceptable as credits for graduation in the secondary schools attended. We shall be very glad to have such elective courses of the practical value indicated in your list. We feel, for the present at least, that three-fourths of the high-school subjects presented to us should be what are known as typical college-preparatory courses.

PRINCETON UNIVERSITY: Princeton will co-operate with the high schools in the present emergency to the full extent of its powers. This means that we will accept for admission preparatory courses not previously considered appropriate for advanced study in this University.

Many high schools and independent preparatory schools are offering emergency or war courses in various fields. These we will accept as single units, but unless the nature of our education is fundamentally altered by the exigencies of war we must still demand that applicants for admission be adequately trained in basic subjects such as English, mathematics, science, and social studies. We desire acquaintance with foreign language, but at a time such as this must make reasonable exceptions.

I feel that in our co-operation we can gain best results if we avoid generalities and deal with individual cases. Please assure your colleagues in the Chicago suburban schools that as Director of Admission in this University I will interpret requirements in the most liberal way and consider every applicant on the basis of his character and promise after consultation with his principal concerning the ability of the boy to do college work.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY: Your letter was received in this office a few days ago, and has been given a good deal of consideration since that time. We realize that many problems are faced by the schools, as well as the universities, under present conditions, and are anxious to simplify them as much as possible.

First of all, let me say that this University has always been very liberal in accepting subjects which accredited high schools count toward their requirements for graduation. As a matter of fact, we have never stipulated any particular combination of subjects, or required anything except English, since the establishment of this University over fifty years ago. We do advise the inclusion of certain subjects, but do not require them; our admission is based primarily on the quality

of the work done. We have found that able students can usually obtain here any particular subjects which they fail to take during their high-school course. It is more important to have able students than those who have had a particular combination of high-school subjects.

I can assure you that we shall give sympathetic consideration to any applicant from your schools who shows evidence of having real ability, and shall not be too severe in analyzing the subjects which have been presented. [Included in the letter was a statement that even a unit of credit in the field of civilian defense would be accepted.]

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN: We are in-

terested in what the group of high schools you name are planning to do in your all-out war effort. . . . We will accept as non-academic units any of the subjects which you list in your letter.

YALE UNIVERSITY: We shall be entirely willing to allow elective credit for admission to Yale for any of the war courses you list, provided only that they are acceptable by you as credits for graduation. Since our required units amount to only eleven, it would seem that any boy planning to come to Yale could arrange his school courses in such a way as to meet these minimum requirements as well as taking some of the special war courses.

[To be concluded]

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THE HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM AND THE NATIONAL MANPOWER SITUATION

HARL R. DOUGLASS

University of Colorado

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THE draining of manpower for the successful prosecution of the war has no more than entered the critical stage. Last summer and fall there was barely enough labor available to harvest the bulk of the crops. In many places some fruits went unpicked, some wheat uncut, some vegetables ungathered, in spite of the fact that several million work days were contributed by men and women and children from the places of business and the homes in the cities and villages. In many war-material plants there is a definite shortage of labor, experienced or inexperienced. As the Army and the Navy personnel continue to increase in the next few months, this shortage will become serious. Fewer men and women will be available to supply, in addition to civilian needs, the needs of our larger armed forces and those of our allies, China, England, and Russia, where production of food, munitions, and supplies has decreased and where the surpluses accumulated in previous years have disappeared. By the summer of 1943 the able-bodied adult or child of more than fourteen years of age who is not at work, at least for part time, will be a rarity.

This growing shortage of manpower has many implications for the schools and colleges, and administrators should at once give most careful attention and study to the problem of what are the best adjustments that can be made. Among others, the following are contributions which the high schools should make, and work should be started on these at once.

PART-TIME ATTENDANCE

The first contribution is the release of many high-school boys and girls on a part-time basis to take over some of the work of the community formerly done by adults. While for obvious reasons it is desirable to keep the very large majority of youth in school, at least for half-time, there is every incentive in most communities for the installation and extension of a co-operative plan in which many high-school pupils will spend a half-day in school and a half-day on the job, or one week in school and the next at work. In many instances pairs of youngsters may hold down the same job.

There are distinct advantages in the co-operative plan. It has been used successfully in more than a thousand

schools. It provides a practical type of vocational training and is so recognized by state boards of education and the United States Office of Education. There are also dangers and objections. While the dangers should be kept in mind and their effects held to a minimum, the objections in this time of critical need of labor do not begin to offset the advantages.

ACCELERATING TRAINING FOR BRIGHT PUPILS

A second contribution that the schools must make is to do their part to assure that the nation will have enough physicians, dentists, nurses, chemists, and engineers to take care of the military needs and the civilian needs incident to the support of the war and the continuance of a reasonable level of civilian life. Some attention should also be given, by all means, to the need for making certain that there will not result from the lack of teachers a breakdown in public education which will weaken the war effort and unnecessarily retard the post-war recovery.

To meet this need, it seems clear that the high schools should immediately attempt to identify the students who are likely, by reason of appropriate abilities and interests, to make good physicians, nurses, dentists, chemists, engineers, and teachers, and to send them on for college training at least a year sooner than ordinarily would be the case. With the drafting of eighteen- and nineteen-year-olds, boys graduating from high school at

the age of seventeen and a half will not, unless physically disqualified, finish a year in college until after the war (unless they are permitted to remain as enlisted reserves—a provision which the Army seems ready to abandon). If the student is not allowed to finish a year in college, he will not be able to demonstrate whether he is competent to enter the medical or the dental school or to succeed in the study of chemistry, nursing, or engineering. In other words, the nation's supply of doctors, dentists, engineers, chemists, teachers, and nurses may, for the next few years, have to come from (1) a small number of young persons disqualified for military service and (2) those bright youngsters whom the high schools send on to college at the age of sixteen or just past seventeen years.

Admittedly, such acceleration is objectionable on several counts. It may not be best, in general, for boys and girls to enter college at the age of sixteen; that point is at least debatable. But war is objectionable in many respects. High schools would lose these bright youngsters a year earlier. In times of peace this point has significance, but in time of war acceleration has much greater significance. It may also be said that the colleges are seeking students to keep up their enrollments. The colleges have so far been very modest and restrained in this direction. They have gone ahead, speeding up their own programs and have had little to say about the secondary schools.

Without question, the colleges would welcome more students. In the past two years many of them have lost from 25 per cent to 50 per cent of their enrolments. Some of them have closed their doors, and others are nearly bankrupt. In some, salaries have been cut to avoid wholesale dismissal of employees. In others, the day has been saved by the use of part of the plant and staff for military training. The matter should be decided not on the basis of the needs of the colleges or the schools but on the basis of the needs of the nation in this time of crisis.

Many communities have lost from a third to a half of their medical personnel, in itself a very dangerous condition, likely to become even more serious in case of epidemic or bombings. Many schools in a number of states do not have enough qualified teachers. Many rural schools—no one knows as yet just how many—have no teachers at all. By next autumn, when vacancies can no longer be filled with teachers from states in which the "budget has been balanced" at the expense of the teachers and the schools and former teachers, the nation's system of public education will be seriously threatened. Not only are teachers being called into service with the armed forces and in the war factories, but the enrolments in teachers' colleges have dropped alarmingly. It would seem clear that the high schools should identify capable girls, accelerate their progress through school, and encourage them to enrol in June in teacher-

training institutions and schools of nursing.

In the first World War England encouraged the enlisting of its brightest young men early in the war. In this war they are not making that mistake. After the other war England suffered seriously from the lack of adequate numbers of properly trained young men in all walks of life. Already, it is reported, seventy thousand men have been released from military service to go back to teaching positions.

The schools have grave responsibilities to see that a sufficient number of young people are given training in these needed fields. The public is leaving these matters largely to school people, and we must be alert to the situation before it is too late. We must not wind up "behind the eight ball" or under a dunce cap, along with those in responsible positions who failed their country in the matter of the supply of steel and of rubber—the "business-as-usual" type of false leaders. To do so would seem to prove the justice of the unfortunate criticism made by many that school people are not practical and that others should form the policies for the school.

PRE-INDUCTION TRAINING

In the past several months the war picture has changed in certain very important details. There is now little hope that the war will end in 1943 and not a great deal that it will end in 1944. It looks definitely like 1945 or 1946. The great majority of Junior and Senior boys in high school today

will have passed through a period of military training and will have contributed military service for at least a few months, probably a few years, before peace comes. It is, therefore, of vital importance that they be given training which will be valuable as pre-induction preparation.

Pre-induction education of Juniors and Seniors does not mean military training. The Army and the Navy will attend to that; they prefer to give it when the boys reach them. Pre-induction training should center in eight areas.

1. The boys should be given physical and health training and hardening calculated to result in sound, hardy bodies and the ability to undergo intensive military training.

2. Emphasis should be placed on the development of morale; the inculcation in the pupils of an intensive desire to fight for their native land, their homes, and their institutions; and the development of a keen appreciation of what democracy, freedom, and equality of opportunity really mean.

3. Provision should be made for a thorough training in simple mathematics and some training in map-reading, direction-finding, simple physics, and meteorology. This training should not be aimed at officer training. Very few of the boys now under eighteen years of age will become commissioned officers in this war. The officers and future officers are already in service or in officer-training camps. The mathematics should include instruction in arithmetic—in the four fundamental

processes, applied particularly to common and decimal fractions. Moreover, attention should be given to elementary algebra, with emphasis on ratio and proportion, formulas, and numerical trigonometry.

4. Along with training of this type, much time should, of course, be given to the economic and political problems which confront us now and which will confront us after the war. Every Junior and Senior should be enrolled in a course in the social studies. A semester course or its equivalent in the study of people of other countries—particularly those in South America or those of our allies—and of world relationships should be required of all pupils.

5. Whether for the Junior or Senior high-school boy of average scholastic ability or less there will be a place in the next few years for instruction in foreign languages is doubtful. For the superior pupil able to pursue five or six subjects, a foreign language may be recommended. Instruction in foreign languages should not be confined nearly so much as it has been in the past to grammar, syntax, and the cultural literature, important as these are. Far greater stress should be placed on the peoples whose languages are being studied—their economic and political status and problems, their place in a world order of peace and democracy, and their right in a democratic world to equality and mutual respect with all other nations.

6. *Specific* vocational education for boys is not so important as it was last

year and previously. Boys beginning training after 1942-43 can hardly be effective in the production of armaments before 1945. By that time there will be a surplus of workers in arms, munitions, aircraft, and ship-building plants. After the war most of these workers will need to learn new vocational duties. *General* mechanical training, however, is still very important, for this is a mechanized war and those who participate in it must be prepared to operate, and to give "first aid" to, mechanized weapons.

Vocational education for girls—business and mechanical education—should be expanded to reach twice or three times as many girls as formerly, since by 1944 there will, of necessity, be millions of girls and women in jobs formerly occupied by men.

7. In all classes in English, modern foreign languages, biology, and the social studies, particular attention should be given to destroying the illusion of Nordic or Aryan superiority which has lured the Germans to their destruction and which has, in the past, constituted a dangerous condition in Great Britain and the United States.

8. Last, but important, Senior boys and girls should be given training in first aid. Boys should be given instruction in what to do for themselves and for wounded comrades on the

battlefield. Girls should be given such training as to render them valuable at home when disaster comes and doctors are scarce.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

The time seems to have come for a program of acceleration in the high schools. Bright youngsters should be graduated in three years, some in less, and sent on to train themselves for service to their country in occupations other than immediate military service.

High schools should, wherever possible, operate four quarters in the year, taking vacations when there is an unusual need for unskilled labor on the farms or elsewhere. Opportunities for part-time employment of high-school boys and girls should be identified and utilized, the pupils being allowed to carry from two to four subjects as the individual case seems to indicate.

High-school graduates intending to enter college should be urged to begin in June, not to wait until September, and to take advantage of the new government loans if necessary.

The high school's contribution to the problem of manpower seems now much more important, our duty much more clear, than it was a few months ago. We should not wait; the time is now!

THE SOCIAL-STUDIES PROGRAM IN THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO HIGH SCHOOL

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DURING the past three years the social-studies program in the University High School of the University of Chicago has been subjected to critical examination. As a result of study and experimentation, a tentative four-year sequence of courses has been developed, which is described in the present article.

PROGRAM AND OBJECTIVES

Social Studies I (Grade VII) and Social Studies II (Grade VIII) include a narrative of United States history and various aspects of life in our country. Social Studies III (Grade IX) and Social Studies IV (Grade X) include a narrative of world history and a number of significant aspects of living, for which the subject matter is selected from the world scene. In Social Studies I approximately twelve weeks are used to study the narrative of United States history, and the remainder of the year is used to study particular aspects of American life. In Social Studies II the entire school year is used to study additional aspects of life in our country, with emphasis on problems of community life. In Social

Studies III approximately twelve weeks are used to study the narrative of world history, and the remainder of the year is used to study units pertaining to the world scene. In Social Studies IV the entire school year is used to study additional units in world history, with emphasis on present-day problems. The classes in Social Studies I and II meet three times weekly, while classes in Social Studies III and IV meet four times each week. The class periods are fifty minutes in length.

The main purposes of the four-year social-studies sequence are:

1. To develop in pupils an understanding of the modern world, with due attention to historic and geographic backgrounds.
2. To develop capacity in critical thinking about historical and present-day problems.
3. To develop ability to see cause-and-effect relationships and to form simple generalizations based on factual material.
4. To develop a sense of evidence, tolerance, and continuity.
5. To develop certain skills peculiar to the social studies, such as the ability to read maps, comprehend geographic factors, construct and interpret graphs and charts.
6. To develop an understanding of the meaning and significance of democracy.

7. To develop attitudes which are socially desirable in a democratic society.

8. To develop ability to apply facts, principles, and understandings to the future needs of society.

9. To provide opportunities for pupils to work co-operatively in attaining their purposes.

10. To give pupils experience in planning, with their teachers, the activities to be pursued.

11. To provide opportunities for pupils to determine their own progress and growth in terms of these purposes.

CLASS PROCEDURE

The purposes imply, among other things, emphasis on co-operative planning on the part of pupils and teachers. The procedures used in the four courses to meet this joint responsibility will be described first. At the beginning of the work in Social Studies I and III, the instructor gives a brief overview of the stream of history—a narrative of United States history in the first-year course and a narrative of world history in the third-year course. During this presentation pupils take notes, and at the beginning of each class period discuss the part of the story which was presented during the preceding class period. At the conclusion of this first "sweep" of the narrative, a reading period of approximately three weeks is provided in order to give pupils an opportunity to enrich the narrative. This reading is also intended to prepare them to make an intelligent selection of the part of the narrative about which they would like to learn more. Those pupils who select the same part form committees for the

purpose of making a detailed study of the topic. Each committee generally proceeds as follows:

1. The members read as widely as possible about the subject.

2. Each member prepares an outline of the subject.

3. After considering the various outlines, the committee prepares a new outline approved by all the members.

4. The committee assigns to each of its members one or more parts of the outline as his responsibility.

5. Each member reads extensively on his special topic.

6. Each member reports to the committee upon his subject.

7. The essential understandings to be brought to the attention of the class are determined.

8. The central theme to be developed in the committee report to the class is stated.

9. A controversial issue relating to the subject is identified and is considered in the committee's report.

10. The committee indicates what reading should be done by the members of the class before its report is given.

11. The committee decides how the report to the class is to be given.

During the past school year a large majority of all pupils at each of the four levels considered the panel discussion the most effective method of presenting committee reports. Other plans, however, were used at times. One committee made an effective report in the form of a series of news broadcasts. Another presented its subject in the form of a debate, and each member of another committee gave a floor talk. At the conclusion of all the committee reports and the evaluation periods which follow, the

instructor and the pupils discuss the relation that the various subjects reported on bear to the narrative as a whole.

The significant aspects of living may properly be referred to as "units of learning." Their content is drawn from the various social-studies fields. The pupils study those units in which they are most interested, for it has been clearly demonstrated that their work is most effective when they are genuinely interested in the topic under consideration. Moreover, it is obvious that there are more units in both the American and the world fields than can be studied in the available time. It is also true that the relative importance of the possible units of study is a matter of controversy. The only restrictions which affect the selection of units to be studied are (1) that specific work in previous or subsequent social-studies courses is not to be duplicated and (2) that the materials available for the unit to be studied are not beyond the capacities of the pupils involved. The units selected by a class become the required subjects. It has appeared advisable, both to pupils and to instructors, that a sequence of units be tentatively planned in order that well-rounded courses may be provided. This does not mean that there can be no modification in the program once the units have been selected. Frequently circumstances arise which justify changes.

The pupils and the instructor next determine the order in which the units are to be studied and the approximate

amount of time to be devoted to each. The instructor explains that there are a number of principles to be considered in making this decision. Units may be studied in the order of their difficulty. Interest may be considered a matter of greater significance, and in this case those units in which pupils are most interested are studied first. Often it is desirable to study a certain unit when the work in social studies may be advantageously correlated with activities in other departments.

In determining the content of a given unit, the pupils are first given one or two class periods in which to read about the subject. The instructor and the pupils then talk over the aspects of the subject which appear important. The entire class decides on the large divisions of an organization for the new unit. Certain standards which should be met are discussed by the class.

The pupils who are interested in the same topic then organize into committees and make a detailed study of their topic. The subject matter focused on each topic is determined by the respective committees. The standards that were used in determining the organization of the unit are strictly adhered to in making this selection of subject matter. After the subject matter has been selected, the procedure is the same as that used during the study of the streams of history. All pupils, in addition to their intensive study of one part of the unit, read extensively on the unit as a whole. Committees then report to the class,

which in turn evaluates the reports. In case the report of a committee is considered inadequate, the class may ask for a second report. When it is necessary, the instructor supplements the reports of committees by correcting inaccurate statements and supplying details which are overlooked.

DESCRIPTION OF COURSES

Although pupils at each of the four grade levels are given considerable opportunity to select units and subject matter which they wish to study, there are certain course requirements:

(1) Social Studies I must include a narrative of United States history and the unit "Houses and Home Life." (2) Social Studies II is to include a unit on "Population of the United States," and the rest of the course will be devoted largely to the consideration of the problems of community life. (3) Social Studies III must include a narrative of world history. (4) Social Studies IV must include a unit on "Democracy and Its Competitors." The units following the study of the narrative of United States history in Grade VII are projected against the background which the pupils have acquired in their study of that narrative. The same is true of the topics considered in Grade VIII. This process is repeated in Grades IX and X, except that the units in these grades are projected against the background provided by the study of the narrative of world history.

Social Studies I.—As has been stated, the teacher gives a brief narra-

tive of United States history, and the pupils enrich their understanding by extensive readings in books selected from the classroom library and other materials provided for this purpose. Some time is spent in general discussion of various phases of the narrative.

The pupils, with the assistance of the instructor, then decide on the main divisions of an outline of the narrative. Only those parts of the story considered most essential are included in this outline, which is to serve as a basis for further study. The outline is expected to provide for a logical and sequential development of the narrative.

A week is usually required to prepare the outline. There is need for considerable class discussion during this time, and the exchange of opinions serves to review the narrative. Each pupil then constructs a time line, which covers the period of time included in the outline.

The committees are then formed and begin their investigations. In case not all main divisions of the outline are selected for study, the pupils are expected to meet the problem by volunteering to study parts that are omitted. Each of the major divisions of the story must be studied intensively by a committee of pupils. After completing its own report, in the manner already discussed, each committee reads more extensively about other phases of the narrative so that the members may be prepared to listen intelligently to reports of other committees. After the presentation of all

the reports, the pupils spend the rest of the year in studying a number of significant aspects of American life.

The required unit on "Houses and Home Life" is studied first. After the completion of the first unit, the pupils decide what additional units they would like to study. Units which have been selected by pupils in the past include "Amusements and Sports in American Life," "Schools and Education," "The Church and Religion," "Travel and Transportation," "Development of Communication," "American Defense," "Unemployment," and "Consumer Problems." In general most of these units are developed historically, although the extent of the historical background introduced is determined by the pupils and the instructor after careful consideration.

Social Studies II.—The second-year course begins with the required unit on "Population of the United States." Since the unit is organized through co-operative planning by pupils and the teacher, its scope varies from year to year. In addition to numerous pamphlets, periodical articles, and newspaper clippings, the pupils use mimeographed material prepared by the instructor. Extensive use is also made of reports and publications of such governmental agencies as the National Resources Committee, the Farm Security Administration, and

¹ Materials for pupil use in some of these units have been prepared by members of the staff. See Robert B. Weaver, *Amusements and Sports in American Life*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1939.

the Bureau of the Census. A period of approximately six to eight weeks is devoted to this unit.

The rest of the course is devoted to a consideration of those aspects of American life which relate particularly to the local community. An attempt is first made to define the term "community." Second, the pupils identify the various communities of which they are members. The third step is then to select the particular community or communities which will be studied. Usually the pupils agree to study intensively the school community and then to follow this with a study of problems pertaining to the city of Chicago.

Various topics suitable to a study of the school are then suggested and assigned to committees. An effort is made to have pupils give particular attention to problems of the school community which demand co-operative effort on the part of both teachers and pupils in order to reach a solution. In the last school year the following problems received special emphasis: (1) the conduct of pupils in the library-study hall; (2) the problem of distributing the home work in eighth-grade classes so that pupils would not be overburdened some evenings and find themselves with nothing to do on others; (3) the problem of making student government function effectively; and (4) the problem of making necessary repairs on drinking fountains in the school corridors. In each case specific recommendations were placed before the proper school authorities, or

the Student Council, or both, and the action of these agencies was awaited. When suggested solutions were not followed, the pupils attempted to learn why their recommendations had not been accepted.

In studying the city of Chicago, the pupils have generally expressed greatest interest in the following phases: (1) government, (2) protection of life and property, (3) public health and sanitation, (4) financing the community, (5) natural and industrial resources, (6) transportation, and (7) racial and national groups. Sometimes these problems are investigated by individual pupils, who then report to the class. Other problems are often considered by committees.

As a result of their study of community life, the pupils begin to understand the forces operating within the community and to develop an awareness of the fundamental principles of community living. At the same time they are given an opportunity to apply in their daily life at school some of the basic principles of effective and successful community life. Their attention is called to the great interdependence which they have found to exist within the communities they have studied and the interdependence of nations in the larger world community.

Social Studies III.—The instructor first presents a brief survey of the stream of world history. This survey is based on an organization of the narrative prepared by members of the staff. It begins with prehistoric times

and continues down to the present. Obviously such a presentation provides only a broad overview. The pupils construct a time line to help them place the various movements, events, and personalities in their proper chronological sequence. The time lines are prepared as the instructor's presentation proceeds. There follows a reading period of two or three weeks, during which the pupils enrich the narrative by extensive reading in the volumes of the classroom library.

As in Social Studies I, the pupils prepare an outline which is to be followed in a more intensive study of the stream of world history. The members of the class assign themselves to committees, each of which investigates one of the major divisions of the outline.

During the remainder of the school year the pupils study a number of significant aspects of living in the area of the world scene. The instructor sketches briefly a possible organization and development of the subjects proposed by teacher and pupils. The decision of the majority of the pupils regarding the units to be studied is accepted by the class, and each pupil is held responsible for an understanding of all units selected.

Social Studies IV.—This course continues the work begun in the second semester of Social Studies III. The unit on "Democracy and Its Competitors," the only requirement, is developed historically in order to acquaint the pupils with various systems of government in the past. Although the chief emphasis is placed on competing

systems of government today, the historical antecedents of these systems are given some attention. With the assistance of the instructor, the pupils prepare an organization of the unit, making use of the subject matter in world history that contributes to an understanding of our present-day forms of government. The unit is concerned primarily with an intensive study of democracy and such alternatives as communism and fascism.

Subsequent units for this course are selected from a list which includes such titles as "Industrial Society," "Standards of Living," "Youth," "Religion," "International Co-operation," "Propaganda and Public Opinion," "Race and Cultural Relations," and "Free Enterprise versus Collectivism."

EVALUATION

At the present time the members of the staff are attempting to gather evidence concerning the effectiveness of instruction according to the methods described. Since experimentation with these methods began, there has been a continuous effort to measure the results achieved and to evaluate the program in terms of its objectives. Various tests, both of the objective and of the essay type, are used to secure evidence on the acquisition of information, understandings, and essential skills. However, these tests serve primarily as teaching aids rather than as bases for determining marks. In keeping with the general practice of pupil participation in determining the activities of the classroom, pupils are en-

couraged to maintain a critical attitude toward the various methods employed, to make suggestions for improving the methods, and to share the responsibility for having each class function with maximum benefits to all its members. The teaching staff has likewise maintained a careful watch for points at which practices seem inconsistent with the desired objectives, as well as places where instruction might be improved.

The present program, in the last analysis, will have merit only if it contributes to the modification of the behavior of boys and girls in University High School. It is obviously impossible to establish the specific role which the experiences in social-studies classes may have in modifying the behavior of a particular individual. Nevertheless, attempts are being made to gather all possible information about the nature of the changes taking place in pupils. Incident records, covering all phases of school life, are being accumulated about each pupil. Frequent conferences between individual pupils and the teachers contribute further information. Use is made of various tests on attitudes. Written work in other subjects often supplies valuable evidence of attitudes or beliefs which may have been influenced by experiences in social-studies classes. While the arrangements for gathering such pertinent data have not yet been perfected, it is expected that these sources will be of material aid in evaluating the total program and suggesting desirable modifications.

ADJUSTING HOME ECONOMICS TO WARTIME NEEDS

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UNDER present conditions administrators and teachers face many questions with regard to the kind of school which can be and should be maintained in wartime. All schools have had changes in personnel. Many must operate on reduced funds. Priorities affect what is available in goods and services. There will be increasingly fewer pupils in the later high-school years.

NEED TO REORGANIZE ENTIRE SCHOOL PROGRAM

To some school people the most serious problem will seem to be that of attempting to maintain, as nearly as possible, the before-the-war program. A few will think that the smaller number of pupils in the last years of high school gives them a chance to do the kind of teaching with small groups which they have long desired. Most school people, however, will realize the importance of rethinking the entire program so that all activities shall be geared to meet the pupils' needs in wartime. Sometimes this adjustment will mean compromising between war demands and those enduring values of education which are the special responsibility of the school. More often, however, it will mean searching for

new ways to achieve the permanent values which have been set up as the goals of education, while meeting, at the same time, present and future needs.

In any rethinking of the work of the school, home economics is vitally concerned. The nature of the field and the recent emphasis on developing a functioning type of education make home economics a particularly useful medium for meeting the special needs in a wartime program of education. The breadth of training of the home-economics teacher makes her an especially useful person to assist in planning and carrying out the major adjustments needed.

What the school teaches is of vital importance to those within and without the school today. Children of every age are anxious to help win the war. The desire of high-school youth to engage in exciting and glamorous activities is natural. In this they are only copying the adults around them. These younger people, too young to be engaged actively in defense itself or in defense industries, should be given an important share in home and community life. They should also be led to see the necessity for routine activity and be required to do their portion

of it. They should be urged to put their very best into their school work. Well-trained and well-disciplined intellects, sound physical and mental health, well-adjusted personalities are more important now than ever before. At the same time that the school is putting pressure on pupils to do their best, it should scrutinize its activities to see that the things which the pupils are expected to do are worth doing.

No teacher and no field should re-plan a program alone. All persons concerned with the school—administrators, teachers, pupils, parents, and community leaders—should face squarely the question of what the school has to offer in relation to what the community, the homes, and the pupils most need today. The educational program should then be planned with these needs in mind.

OVERCOMING TEACHER SHORTAGES

The first and most pressing problem facing many schools is that of getting the children taught. There are definite teacher shortages in certain fields. In the high school, mathematics, science, industrial arts, and agriculture have been taught largely by men teachers. Few home-economics teachers will be able to help with the mathematics. Nearly all, however, have excellent science backgrounds, the best possessed by any teachers who did not major in the field. Many will have the equivalent of a science major in biology and chemistry with at least one additional course in physics. All will know science as applied to everyday

life. All will have had experience in laboratory teaching.

In considering the total program of a school, it may be more important for the home-economics teacher to teach a science course than for her to continue one of the home-economics courses now offered. If the home-economics teacher does this, she should be encouraged to make the applications of the science to those life-activities which she knows best: the house and its equipment, foods, and clothing. In those schools where science has been taught in segregated classes for girls taking home economics, the classes may need to be opened to all pupils desiring science at that level.

Schools not having an industrial-arts or an agricultural teacher this year may well put boys and girls together in classes in which the home-economics teacher will give instruction in problems of personal and home living. The needs of boys in the early high-school years will fall largely in the area of general education; in the later years, in what may more properly be called "homemaking." Such work for boys will place less emphasis on skills in food preparation, clothing construction, and housewifery than that now offered to girls. Obviously changes must be made if classes set up for girls alone are to be opened to boys. One possibility is to replan the entire course, selecting experiences which will be, in general, of interest to both sexes. A second is to develop learning units built around large problems of mutual interest, providing

within these units, however, for the carrying-out of more specific interests through small-group and individual work. These smaller groups would not always separate on the basis of sex differences, but at times this would no doubt be true. A third possibility is to set aside a certain portion of the time for boys and girls together and to allow additional laboratory time for those girls who wish and need to develop more skill along certain lines.

Many home-economics teachers have had experience in teaching boys. The number of boys reached is small, however, and the amount of work given to those enrolled is decidedly limited. The present would seem to be the time to examine home economics for its most significant values in educating both boys and girls throughout the junior and senior high school years and to make such instruction available.

PUPILS' CONTRIBUTION TO THE WAR EFFORT

The school, as a whole, has other obligations to its pupils and to the community than that of teaching classes. The war is affecting, directly or indirectly, the lives of all who are in school. All want to help in winning the war. The school should assist these young people in finding worthwhile outlets for their interests and energies to the extent that such activities are already available. It should also help to establish others, allowing the time and the effort necessary to provide experiences which will give

those still in school a vital part in the war effort. This may mean first showing pupils ways in which they can share and then preparing them to share in important aspects of the work at home. They may need to learn to buy food, to plan and prepare meals, to care for little children. They should know how to care for their health, be helped to develop wholesome recreation. All these needs can be met, in part, through home economics. Many mothers are actively engaged in defense work. Others are giving a great deal of time to volunteer civilian demands.

Young people of high-school age, however, will want to do more than help at home. Play and nursery schools for preschool children are needed in many places. Both boys and girls can be trained to help in such activities. High-school pupils can help in teaching children in the elementary grades about good nutrition, healthful living practices, and conservation and care of clothing. Many elementary schools will be without teachers of physical education, music, or art. High-school pupils with special talents may assist in providing these experiences for younger children.

Wholesome recreation presents a very real problem for the high-school group. These young people should be helped to help themselves, as well as other people. Teachers and departments of craft work, industrial arts, home economics, physical education, and music may unite with pupils in developing a variety of recreational

offerings for this older group in their out-of-school hours.

WORK EXPERIENCE FOR PUPILS

A great deal has been said in recent years about the need for young people to have work experience in connection with their schooling. Such experience has been advocated both for its value in helping young people grow up and for its vocational-guidance, try-out, and training values. Home practice work and home projects have been a part of vocational programs for many years. Not always, however, have these activities been as lifelike as teachers desired. These weaknesses should be remedied. All schools having home economics, whether or not labeled "vocational," should promote programs of work at home and school. A second opportunity for work programs presents itself in the need for part-time workers. Young people, who wish to do so, may secure home employment for almost any kind of work in which they are skilful for as much time as they wish to be so occupied. Home-economics teachers have a real responsibility for making this employment an educational experience for those who undertake it.

SPECIAL PROBLEMS IN HOME-ECONOMICS TEACHING

In addition to these large problems facing the school, which particularly concern the home-economics teacher, many changes will need to be made in the teaching within individual classes. Home economics is concerned with the

immediate personal and social relations of people. Young men and women have long expressed an interest in home-life education. Their interest in these problems has increased rather than decreased with the war. They are in special need of help in weighing values today. Many of them have already felt the pressure of families torn apart by war. Mothers are increasingly engaged in activities outside the home. Young men see themselves called into service almost as soon as they leave school. Girls of high-school age, as well as the young women of somewhat older ages, are afraid that life may pass them by if they wait for marriage until after the war. The achieving of wholesome, carefully considered ideals, well-adjusted personalities, sound physical and mental health becomes increasingly important as war goes on.

Healthful living, the protection of health, and the care of the sick have always been matters of concern to home economics. Optimal health becomes of primary importance in wartime and increasingly difficult to secure and maintain. Good nutrition has always been dependent on the knowledge which people had and on the importance which they placed on the knowledge, as well as on their resources. Today nutrition information must be reinterpreted in terms of the scarcity of certain foods. As people are forced to make substitutions, there is real danger that they will change on the basis of likes rather than nutrition values. Medical and nursing care will

be further restricted in the days ahead. Instruction in the care of the sick and the prevention of illness is extremely important. Housing also presents a serious health problem for many families today. Some are changing their living places because they must. Housing conditions in defense areas leave much to be desired from both the health and the aesthetic points of view. Some people are willingly changing their living places to less desirable conditions because they want other things more. Many people need help in weighing values today in the interest of good physical and mental health.

The use of money—whether that of the individual or the family—has been another concern of home economics. The financial situation which people face today presents new problems. Many families have more money than they have ever had. In the case of families hard pressed during the depression or of young people whose earnings in the past have been limited, the first and quite natural reaction is to want to spend money—to have good food, to buy expensive clothes, and to go places. It is not easy to persuade such people to put buying of defense bonds and saving for taxes first and to put physical comfort and pleasure second. The school must help here.

The unavailability of certain materials and services, the freezing of certain goods and the rationing of others, the need to use substitutes—all present problems to the individual and the

family. The limited amount of domestic service available and the demand for the service of the homemaker outside the home require a simplifying of life within the home, the making of a clear distinction between essential and nonessential values. Gasoline rationing, conservation of tires, time for war work, money for bonds demand recreation that is inexpensive and close at hand. Conservation of clothing; conservation of household furniture, furnishings, and equipment; and economy in the use of electricity call for changes in living practices. Many people will need to learn to mend, to make over clothing, to care for and repair equipment, to reduce time in preparing meals, to bake to capacity when the oven is heated. Success in meeting these new situations will not just happen. It will come only as the result of learning. People can be taught to make a game out of what seems like hardship or to waste their energy in self-pity and selfish behavior.

TRAINING FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH AND FOR ADULTS

Young people may be expected to drop out of school increasingly in the months ahead. Some will drop out because they think it important that they participate more actively in the struggle in which we are engaged either by enlisting or going to work. Others will leave because they are afraid of what may come after the war; they want to earn money while the earning is good. No one course can

be set up as best for all. Each case needs to be considered on an individual basis. All pupils who quit high school before graduation, however, should be urged to continue their education on a part-time basis, even if only in a unit offered once or twice a week.

Every high school today should seriously consider offering short units of instruction to all out-of-school youth. Units of interest to employed young people which might be offered by home economics have to do with money management, better "buyman-ship," personal development and grooming, selection and care of clothing, and nutrition. Many of these young women will marry and will have need for homemaking skills. Those whose husbands are in service should be urged to become good homemakers during this period whether they are gainfully employed or not.

In years past many schools have offered to adults units in various aspects of home economics. Many more of these units are certain to be needed now. Such instruction should be stripped to its barest essentials and offered at the level of interest and ability of those whom it would reach. Women in all walks of life need instruction in nutrition, food preparation and food-buying, clothing selection and remodeling, prevention of

illness, care of the sick, and the care of children. The schools have an obligation to meet these needs to the limit of their resources.

A number of agencies and institutions have long been interested in the family. During the depression an increasing number, many of them newly established, became interested in the welfare of lower-income groups and those otherwise underprivileged. Still other agencies have been established during the war, the work of which will closely touch home and family life. It is essential that all these agencies work together in order that the desired results be achieved with the minimum of time and effort and friction. The school and the home-economics department are concerned that satisfactory co-operative relationships be worked out and maintained.

The suggestions made here call for a type of home-economics program different from that which is now in operation in most high schools. At points these suggestions are in conflict with what has been set up as a good vocational program. The superintendent who desires to reorganize his offerings along these lines may question whether federal reimbursement will be given when such use is made of the teacher's time. If we are "all out" to win the war, such barriers should not be insurmountable.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE AS AFFECTED BY PREVAILING SOCIO-ECONOMIC FACTORS

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*

TWO APPROACHES

THERE are two complementary approaches to the evaluation of the educational status of a group. One is an evaluation of school attendance; the other is an appraisal of educational achievement. Since its earlier days the United States Census has followed both approaches simultaneously, although for some time in a rudimentary manner. The tabulation of school attendance was initiated as early as 1850. However, the important differentiation of attendance by age was introduced only with the beginning of the present century. School achievement has been measured by the vague, dichotomous classification of the population as "literate" and "illiterate." This classification was started in 1870 and had been perpetuated until the 1940 Census. Although it might be assumed that the term "illiterate" segregated rather definitely the persons who have had no education whatsoever, the term "literate"—by treating the remaining population as a homogeneous group—has contributed very little to any clear judgment of the educational level of the population. The

1940 Census substituted the question of "grades completed" for the traditional question on "illiteracy"—a change for which credit should be given to the Bureau of the Census.²

Even before the latest census there had been many isolated studies of educational status by "grades completed," especially among studies of youth.³ Of these, wider in scope was the ecological study by Lang⁴ of the educational status, associated with economic status, of the population in the city of Chicago. It was based on the 1934 special census of Chicago and was made by census tracts which were ranked on the basis of median equiva-

² The questions on illiteracy and on ability to speak English were retained in the 1940 Census schedule only for some territories and possessions.

³ See Louise Arnold Menefee and M. M. Chambers, *American Youth: An Annotated Bibliography*. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

⁴ a) Richard O. Lang, *The Relation of Educational Status to Economic Status in the City of Chicago, by Census Tracts, 1934*. Chicago: Private edition, distributed by the University of Chicago Libraries, 1937.

b) Richard O. Lang, "Population Characteristics Associated with Educational Levels and Economic Status in Chicago," *American Sociological Review*, II (April, 1937), 187-94.

¹ From the Division of Public Health Methods, National Institute of Health.

lent monthly rentals. (The ranking of tracts served as the economic background for the analysis.) Then a study was made of differentials in the educational achievement of white and colored urban youth of the United States in the various income classes.¹ The basic data for this study were supplied by the National Health Survey, which was carried out in the midwinter of 1935-36.² This study of educational attainment was mainly concerned with the prevailing educational trends and was, therefore, purposely limited to the 15-19 and 20-24 age groups. To complete this picture of contemporary educational status, school attendance is here examined in terms of the same factors (age, sex, color, and income) as was school attainment, with the main emphasis on income. However, the present report deals with the entire population from 7 to 24 years of age, separated into age groupings corresponding to those used in the census. The age groupings are 7-13, 14-15, 16-17, 18-19, 20-24, comprising a population of 761,414 indi-

viduals. The classification of these individuals by sex, color, and family income is presented in Table 1.

CLASSIFICATION BY SEX, RACE AND INCOME

For a detailed statement of the scope and the method of the survey and a detailed explanation of terminology, the reader is referred to previously published studies.³ The few definitions briefly restated here are limited to terms most apposite to the present discussion. "White" is used in the conventional manner, whereas "colored" refers to Negroes, Mexicans, and other colored persons. (In the survey Mexicans were grouped with Negroes because of close correspondence in socio-economic status. The number of Mexicans was too small for a separate analysis.) The "colored" group represents principally Negroes. As may be seen from Table 1, the total group consisted of 681,138 white youths, and 80,276 colored youths.⁴

Since economic status is a major factor in the analysis, its measure should be kept well in mind. It is measured by "annual family income," which represents the aggregate income

¹ Bernard D. Karpinos and Herbert J. Sommers, "Educational Attainment of Urban Youth in Various Income Classes," *Elementary School Journal*, XLII (May and June, 1942), 677-87, 766-74.

² The survey was conducted by the United States Public Health Service with the aid of the Work Projects Administration, Official Projects 712159-658/9999 and 765-23-3-10. It was a house-to-house canvass designed to determine (1) the amount of illness in the population, (2) the extent of medical care received in connection with such illness, and (3) the relation of these data to socio-economic factors, such as employment, occupation, education, etc. The housewife was ordinarily the informant.

³ See especially George St. J. Perrott, Clark Tibbitts, and Rollo H. Britten, "National Health Survey: Scope and Method of the Nation-wide Canvass of Sickness in Relation to Its Social and Economic Setting," *United States Public Health Reports*, LIV (September 15, 1939), or Reprint No. 2098.

⁴ The total surveyed population comprised about two and a quarter million white persons and a quarter-million colored persons. The Negro population constituted about 95 per cent of all colored persons.

received by all members of the family during the year preceding the survey. "Family" refers to the head of the household and all persons in the household related to the head of the household by blood, marriage, or adoption. Families in which any member had

their economic situation.¹ As is indicated in Table 1, the bulk of the white youth were in the income groups under \$2,000, while the bulk of the colored youth were in the "Under \$1,000" income group. Though representing, in general, urban youth, the analyzed

TABLE 1
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF URBAN YOUTH, AGE 7-24, BY
COLOR, SEX, AND ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME, 1935-36

ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME	WHITE YOUTH			COLORED YOUTH		
	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Both Sexes	Male	Female
Number of persons.....	681,138	329,727	351,411	80,276	36,325	43,951
Under \$1,000 (relief and non-relief).....	40.9	41.3	40.6	85.2	84.9	85.5
\$1,000-\$1,999.....	40.5	40.3	40.8
\$2,000-\$2,999.....	12.0	12.0	11.9
\$3,000 and over.....	6.6	6.4	6.7
\$1,000 and over.....	14.8	15.1	14.5
Total.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

been receiving public assistance (such as work relief, direct relief, mothers' pension, or pension for the blind) were classified as "on relief," irrespective of income. Most of the relief group were in the "Under \$1,000" income category and were therefore combined in the discussion with the non-relief group of "Under \$1,000" income. However, two of the tables in this article present separate data for the relief group.

The classifications by income levels should be regarded as rough approximations, since families were asked only to designate which of several income intervals most appropriately described

data are somewhat over-represented with youth from the larger cities.²

¹ The following income intervals were given on the schedule of the survey for estimating the total annual family income: (a) \$5,000 or more, (b) \$3,000 but under \$5,000, (c) \$2,000 but under \$3,000, (d) \$1,500 but under \$2,000, (e) \$1,000 but under \$1,500, and (f) less than \$1,000. (See Entry 59 on the survey schedule given in the Appendix to George St. J. Perrott, Clark Tibbitts, and Rollo H. Britten, *op. cit.*, or Bernard D. Karpinos, *The Socio-economic and Employment Status of Urban Youth in the United States, 1935-36*. Public Health Bulletin No. 273. Washington: United States Public Health Service, 1941.

² The survey included eighty-three cities in eighteen states, which were so selected as to provide, as far as possible, representativeness by geographic region and size of city.

INDEX OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE

School attendance is expressed by the proportion of persons "in school." This classification, which was recorded by the survey in the entry on "employment,"¹ was designed to include all persons who were attending school regularly at the time of the canvass. It

of "employment status" should be clearly observed in any attempt to compare these data with those of the Census.²

WHITE YOUTH IN SCHOOL

School attendance of the white male and female urban youth differ-

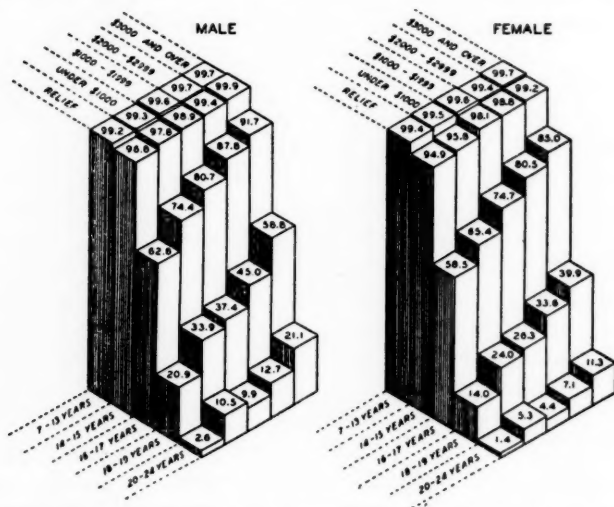


FIG. 1.—Percentage of white youth of various income classes attending school, classified according to age and sex, 1935-36 (based on Tables 2 and 3).

includes persons who were engaged in part-time employment before or after school hours. It excludes, however, persons who had a full-time job, though attending school regularly. The close tie-up between this index of "school attendance" and the concept

¹ Entry 15 on the survey schedule. (See George St. J. Perrott, Clark Tibbitts, and Rollo H. Britten, *op. cit.*, or Bernard D. Karpinos, *op. cit.*) Entry 14 of the schedule marked "education" refers to school attainment as discussed by Bernard D. Karpinos and Herbert J. Sommers, *op. cit.*

entiated by family income is shown in Tables 2 and 3 and in Figure 1. The data are presented by four geographic areas: (1) Northeast, which includes the New England and the Middle Atlantic states, as given in the Census; (2) North Central, which includes the East and the West North Central states; (3) South, which includes the South Atlantic, the East, and the West South Central states;

² For further details see the Introduction to Bernard D. Karpinos, *op. cit.*

and (4) West, which includes Mountain and Pacific regions.¹ However, no particular attention will be paid to the

White male youth.—As might be expected, the direct relationship that was found to exist between educational

TABLE 2
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF WHITE URBAN MALE YOUTH, AGE 7-24, IN
VARIOUS INCOME CLASSES, BY AREA, 1935-36

GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION AND AGE OF PERSONS	PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS ATTENDING SCHOOL CLASSIFIED BY ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME						
	All Incomes	Under \$1,000			\$1,000- \$1,999	\$2,000- \$2,999	\$3,000 and Over
		Total	Relief	Non-relief			
All areas:							
7-13.....	99.4	99.3	99.2	99.3	99.6	99.7	99.7
14-15.....	98.3	97.3	96.8	97.8	98.9	99.4	99.9
16-17.....	76.7	68.2	62.8	74.4	80.7	87.8	91.7
18-19.....	35.2	27.5	20.9	33.9	37.4	45.0	58.8
20-24.....	11.7	7.1	2.6	10.5	9.9	12.7	21.1
Northeast:							
7-13.....	99.5	99.4	99.4	99.4	99.6	99.7	99.7
14-15.....	99.1	98.8	98.6	99.0	99.2	99.7	100.0
16-17.....	72.8	65.4	61.8	70.6	75.8	83.3	87.8
18-19.....	29.2	21.5	17.2	27.0	30.3	40.5	53.2
20-24.....	10.0	4.5	1.8	7.4	8.4	11.9	18.5
North Central:							
7-13.....	99.5	99.4	99.2	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.7
14-15.....	98.3	97.4	96.7	98.1	98.9	98.8	99.8
16-17.....	78.3	70.2	64.0	77.2	82.4	89.3	94.8
18-19.....	36.9	30.6	22.4	38.3	39.5	44.1	59.1
20-24.....	13.4	9.4	3.0	14.1	12.1	13.2	20.6
South:							
7-13.....	99.0	98.5	98.0	98.9	99.4	99.5	99.6
14-15.....	95.6	92.5	90.1	94.3	97.2	99.5	99.8
16-17.....	73.5	59.6	48.9	67.7	81.3	89.8	92.7
18-19.....	36.0	22.4	17.8	25.3	40.4	53.8	69.0
20-24.....	8.1	2.4	2.0	2.5	6.5	12.1	19.6
West:							
7-13.....	99.6	99.4	99.5	99.2	99.7	99.9	99.9
14-15.....	99.0	98.0	97.2	99.0	99.4	100.0	100.0
16-17.....	89.2	84.2	79.5	89.4	91.3	95.6	95.1
18-19.....	50.2	44.3	34.6	51.6	53.5	54.7	63.4
20-24.....	16.4	13.4	5.1	18.0	12.4	14.2	31.9

separate areas, since the primary purpose of this article is to present an over-all picture.

¹ For the list of cities surveyed in each region, see Bernard D. Karpinos and Herbert J. Sommers, *op. cit.*, p. 774.

achievement and family income² was also found to prevail between school attendance and family income, specifically in the older age groups. (The

² *Ibid.*

parallelism between these two measures of educational status is, of course, natural since educational achievement probably ignore entirely the difference in school attendance of youth aged 7-13 of the various income classes.

TABLE 3
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF WHITE URBAN FEMALE YOUTH, AGE 7-24, IN
VARIOUS INCOME CLASSES, BY AREA, 1935-36

GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION AND AGE OF PERSONS	PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS ATTENDING SCHOOL CLASSIFIED BY ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME						
	All Incomes	Under \$1,000			\$1,000- \$1,999	\$2,000- \$2,999	\$3,000 and Over
		Total	Relief	Non-relief			
All areas:							
7-13.....	99.5	99.4	99.4	99.5	99.6	99.4	99.7
14-15.....	97.1	95.3	94.9	95.8	98.1	98.8	99.2
16-17.....	70.4	61.9	58.5	65.4	74.7	80.5	85.0
18-19.....	25.6	19.4	14.0	24.0	26.3	33.6	39.9
20-24.....	5.0	3.8	1.4	5.3	4.4	7.1	11.3
Northeast:							
7-13.....	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.6	99.5	99.8
14-15.....	98.1	97.2	97.0	97.5	98.6	99.3	99.2
16-17.....	66.1	58.1	56.0	61.0	70.2	74.9	81.5
18-19.....	20.7	14.8	11.9	18.3	21.3	28.1	33.1
20-24.....	4.1	2.6	1.0	4.2	3.9	12.0	19.3
North Central:							
7-13.....	99.5	99.5	99.4	99.5	99.5	99.5	99.7
14-15.....	96.7	95.1	94.5	95.9	97.6	98.4	99.0
16-17.....	71.2	64.3	60.1	68.4	75.2	80.4	84.7
18-19.....	27.4	22.4	14.3	28.7	27.5	36.3	39.9
20-24.....	5.6	4.5	1.7	6.2	4.5	8.5	12.6
South:							
7-13.....	99.2	98.9	98.5	99.2	99.4	99.0	99.5
14-15.....	94.0	89.4	86.9	91.2	96.9	97.8	99.0
16-17.....	67.8	53.3	48.9	56.1	74.7	86.8	89.5
18-19.....	25.2	16.1	11.6	18.5	27.9	35.8	48.7
20-24.....	3.8	2.5	1.6	3.0	3.0	6.6	11.0
West:							
7-13.....	99.6	99.6	99.5	99.6	99.7	99.6	99.7
14-15.....	98.4	97.0	96.3	97.9	99.1	99.3	99.8
16-17.....	85.0	79.2	75.0	82.9	89.0	90.2	88.8
18-19.....	35.9	29.0	24.7	31.7	37.5	42.5	48.3
20-24.....	7.9	6.3	2.0	8.6	7.0	11.9	14.5

depends directly on school attendance.) The relationship holds true for both male and female youth in each geographic area.

For the white male youth, one may

The difference between the school attendance of youth of this age in the low income class ("Under \$1,000") and that of youth in the highest income class ("\$3,000 and Over") fluctu-

ates around 0.5 per cent, and it is only in the South that the difference slightly exceeds 1 per cent. The corresponding proportion of male youth of all areas and "All Incomes" attending school was 99.4 per cent. The differences by family income become quite noticeable in the 14-15 age group, again mainly in the South. While for all areas the difference in school attendance of this age group is approximately 2.6 per cent for the two extreme income classes—97.3 per cent in the "Under \$1,000" income class against 99.9 per cent in the "\$3,000 and Over" income class—it reaches as high as 7.3 per cent in the South, the percentages for this region being 92.5 and 99.8 for the extreme income classes, respectively. For all areas and "All Incomes" the percentage of youth aged 14-15 attending school was 98.3.

The relative differences by family income become progressively sharper as one proceeds from the 16-17 age group to the 20-24 age group, when the factor of employment begins to play a major part.¹ For all areas, in the 16-17 age group, the proportion of youth attending school ranges from 68.2 per cent in the "Under \$1,000" income class to 91.7 per cent in the "\$3,000 and Over" income class; in the 18-19 age group, from 27.5 per cent to 58.8 per cent within the same income classification; and, in the 20-24 age group, from 7.1 per cent to 21.1 per cent.

¹ For a discussion of the effect of socio-economic factors on employment of youth, see Bernard D. Karpinos, *op. cit.*

These differentials in school attendance influenced by family income stress the importance of the economic factor. Forced by the economic status of their families to enter the labor market, youth of the low income group leave school at an earlier age. Apparently, however, this fact does not tell the whole story. Though wide differences by family income exist in the West as well as in the South, these areas vary conspicuously in their absolute percentages of youth in school. For instance, the proportion of youth aged 20-24 in school in the South increases from 2.4 per cent in the lowest income class to 19.6 per cent in the highest income class, while in the West the range is from 13.4 per cent to 31.9 per cent. The West thus leads all other areas with respect to school attendance, followed by North Central, Northeast, and the South. There appear to be, therefore, additional cultural factors, other than economic, which are responsible for such pronounced regional differences.

For all areas and "All Incomes," the percentages of white urban youth attending school were 76.7, 35.2, and 11.7 in the 16-17, the 18-19, and the 20-24 age groups, respectively.

While female youth.—Data concerning the white female youth are presented in Table 3 and in Figure 1. The pattern of the differentials in school attendance, as affected either by family income or by regional factors, is in general about the same among female youth as among male youth. However, the differentials arising from

family income become marked among the female youth at an earlier age than among the male youth. In fact, the difference between the proportion of female youth aged 14-15 in the low income class and that in the highest income class—applying the same income spread as before—is about 4 per cent in the South. (For comparison it might be recalled that the corresponding differences for the male youth were 2.6 per cent and 7.3 per cent, respectively.) For the other age groups of all areas, the proportion of female youth in school in the extreme income classes extends from 61.9 to 85.0 per cent in the 16-17 age group; from 19.4 to 39.9 per cent in the 18-19 age group; and from 3.8 to 11.3 per cent in the 20-24 age group. Again, as indicated in Table 3, the West is more advanced in comparison with the other areas with respect to school attendance of female youth and is followed by North Central, Northeast, and the South.

For all areas and "All Incomes" the percentages of white urban female youth attending school were 70.4, 25.6, and 5.0 in the 16-17, 18-19, and 20-24 age groups, respectively. It should be noticed that in each of the income classes, irrespective of area, the proportion of female youth attending school is lower at every age, from age fourteen on, than the proportion of male youth attending school. The differences by sex increase with age.

The factors responsible for the earli-

er departure from school of female youth are seemingly distinct for the

TABLE 4
SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF COLORED AND
WHITE URBAN YOUTH, AGE 7-24, IN
VARIOUS INCOME CLASSES, 1935-36

GEOGRAPHIC DIVISION AND AGE OF PERSONS	PERCENTAGE OF PERSONS ATTENDING SCHOOL, CLASSIFIED BY ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME					
	Colored			White		
	All In- comes	Under \$1,000 (Re- lief and Non- relief)	\$1,000 and Over	All In- comes	Under \$1,000 (Re- lief and Non- relief)	\$1,000 and Over
Male						
All areas:						
7-13.....	98.4	98.3	99.1	99.4	99.3	99.6
14-15.....	93.3	92.4	98.0	98.3	97.3	99.1
16-17.....	65.5	63.1	79.1	76.7	68.2	83.4
18-19.....	27.5	25.3	41.0	35.2	27.5	41.4
20-24.....	5.5	4.4	10.1	11.7	7.1	11.9
South:						
7-13.....	97.6	97.5	99.3	99.0	98.5	99.4
14-15.....	89.1	88.6	94.0	95.6	92.5	98.1
16-17.....	57.2	55.8	72.3	73.5	59.6	84.9
18-19.....	21.7	20.4	37.5	36.0	22.4	47.0
20-24.....	5.8	5.1	9.6	8.1	2.4	9.3
Non-South:*						
7-13.....	99.2	99.2	99.0	99.5	99.4	99.6
14-15.....	98.2	97.8	99.8	99.0	98.1	99.3
16-17.....	75.4	73.4	82.3	77.2	69.7	83.2
18-19.....	34.7	32.6	42.1	35.1	28.3	40.6
20-24.....	5.1	3.2	10.2	12.0	7.9	12.3
Female						
All areas:						
7-13.....	98.7	98.7	98.7	99.5	99.4	99.5
14-15.....	92.2	91.3	97.3	97.1	95.3	98.3
16-17.....	61.4	58.8	75.6	70.4	61.9	77.1
18-19.....	21.5	19.9	36.2	25.6	19.4	29.7
20-24.....	3.0	2.7	5.8	5.0	3.8	5.7
South:						
7-13.....	98.2	98.1	99.1	99.2	98.0	99.3
14-15.....	88.2	87.7	94.2	91.0	89.4	97.4
16-17.....	54.2	52.8	71.4	68.0	53.3	79.4
18-19.....	19.4	18.5	30.1	25.2	16.1	32.5
20-24.....	3.3	3.0	8.3	3.8	2.5	4.5
Non-South:						
7-13.....	99.2	99.4	98.5	99.6	99.5	99.6
14-15.....	97.1	96.7	98.5	97.6	96.4	98.5
16-17.....	71.3	69.1	77.3	71.0	63.4	76.7
18-19.....	24.7	22.4	36.0	25.6	20.1	29.3
20-24.....	2.6	2.1	4.5	5.3	4.0	5.9

* Non-South includes Northeast, North Central, and West.

various income classes. In the lower income classes the primary factors are apparently marriage and taking care of the home, whereas in the higher income classes the primary factor is apparently employment. This conclusion is evident from the following data.

in the highest income class.¹ This explanation concerning the earlier departure of young women from school does not exclude, of course, the probable influence of the common attitude toward "educating" women.² But even this attitude undoubtedly differs

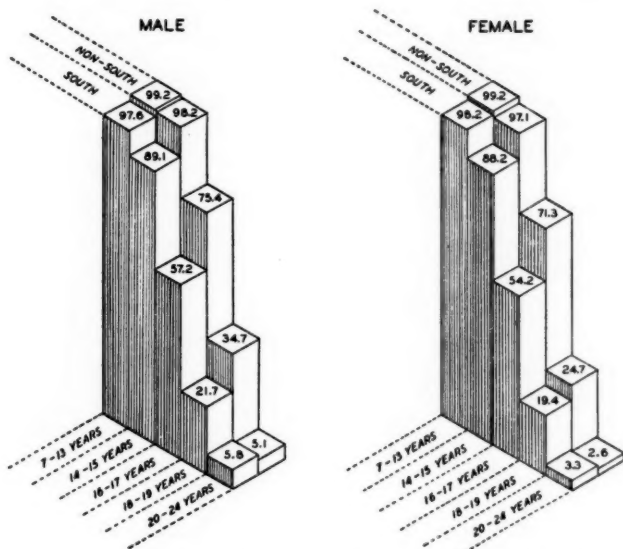


FIG. 2.—Percentage of colored youth in South and Non-South attending school, classified according to age and sex, 1935-36 (based on Table 4).

The percentages of married young women aged 15-19 were 9.6 in the "Under \$1,000" income class and 1.7 in the "\$3,000 and Over" income class; in the 20-24 age group, the percentages of married young women ranged from 48.8 to 15.3, within the same income spread. On the other hand, the percentages of employed young women aged 16-24 ranged from 22.3 in the lowest income class to 45.0

from income class to income class, effecting class variation in school attendance of young women.

¹ The employment and marriage data were taken from Bernard D. Karpinos, *op. cit.*, Tables 7 and 11. (See discussion there on the relation between marriage and employment of youth.) To a certain extent, the employment of these youth is responsible for their higher income classification.

² The percentages of female youth aged 16-24 "at home," that is to say, the percentages of young women who were neither working, nor

COLORED YOUTH IN SCHOOL

The separate treatment of colored youth suggests the operation of an additional race factor. The data for colored youth are shown in Table 4 and in Figures 2 and 3, juxtaposed with

the proportion of colored youth in school are noticeable at a younger age than among the white. (Compare, age by age, the proportion in school by income, as given in Table 4.) With respect to sex, the differences in school

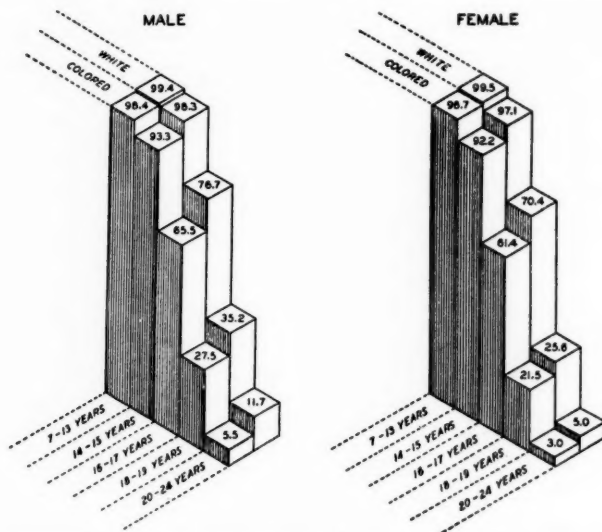


FIG. 3.—Percentage of white and colored youth attending school, classified according to age and sex, 1935-36 (based on Table 4).

corresponding data for white youth. The classifications by income are "Under \$1,000" and "\$1,000 and Over," separated by South and Non-South.

As among the white youth, school attendance of colored youth varies materially with income, sex, and region. For male and female youth alike, differences between income classes in

seeking work, nor taking care of the house, ranged from 7.3 in the "Under \$1,000" income class to 9.3 in the "\$3,000 and Over" income class (Bernard D. Karpinos, *op. cit.*, Table 7).

attendance among colored youth, though marked, are not so large as those among white. As to regional influences, the South compared with the Non-South shows lower proportions in school for all youth except the 20-24 age group. These differences are set forth graphically in Figure 2. The latter age group is of college age, and the relatively higher percentage of colored youth attending school in the South is obviously due to the fact that

there are relatively more colleges for Negroes in the South.¹

Compared with the white youth, school attendance for colored youth is in general much lower, as is conspicuously brought out in Figure 3. The differences between the school attendance of colored and white youth are less pronounced when comparisons are made by specific income classes. However, because of the fact that the majority of colored youth belong to the

lower income classes, where school attendance is low, the differences stand out more when colored youth of "All Incomes" are compared with white youth of "All Incomes."

It might be emphasized once more that the clear-cut differences in school attendance shown to prevail among white and colored youth of the various income classes do not imply that other social factors are inoperative in determining the variation. Of course the other factors might in themselves be the cause or the effect of income.

¹ See Bernard D. Karpinos and Herbert J. Sommers, *op. cit.*

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

LEONARD V. KOOS

University of Chicago

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IN THIS list, as in its ten predecessors which have been published in January issues of the *School Review* beginning in 1933, the term "instruction" is a comprehensive one, including curriculum, methods of teaching and study, supervision, and measurement. The vertical extent of secondary education is assumed to include junior high school, senior high school, and junior-college years.

It goes almost without saying that literature on the curriculum has in recent months shifted toward emphasis on wartime adjustments. The amount of material with this emphasis is so great as to make feasible here reference to a small number only of representative items. While mention is being made of materials inadequately recognized in the list, it seems desirable to call attention to the inclusion of only a pair of items from the *Curriculum Journal*. Persons interested in curriculum and conversant with that periodical will know that a volume of its issues contains much more significant material than is here noted. Reasons for infrequent citation of the *Curriculum Journal* are the impracticability of listing all pertinent references and the fact that many of the

articles in it are very brief expositions of programs of curriculum development.

The number of published investigative studies in curriculum and instruction seems to have declined somewhat during the past few years, probably owing to preoccupation with wartime interests. This loss is more than compensated for by two volumes from the Eight-Year Study of the Progressive Education Association, namely, Item 9 in this list and Item 639 in the list appearing in the December number of the *School Review*. It will be years before reports of investigations on a par with this study, in its significance for secondary-school instruction, will find their way into print.

CURRICULUM¹

1. AIKIN, WILFORD M. "High Schools and the Promise of the Future," *High School Journal*, XXV (April, 1942), 149-55.

Generalizes some of the findings and lessons of the Eight-Year Study, the thirty schools of which serve as an example of what democracy's high school can become.

¹ See also Item 465 (Bollman) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1942, number of the *School Review*; Item 529 (Merideth and Lembke) in the October, 1942, number; and Item 569 (Montgomery) in the November, 1942, number of the same journal.

2. BELTING, PAUL E., and BELTING, NATALIA MARFE. *The Modern High School Curriculum*. Champaign, Illinois: Garrard Press, 1942. Pp. 276.

Includes, besides an opening chapter presenting "Some Principles Underlying the Modern High School Curriculum" and a concluding chapter of "Summary and Integration," chapters on each of a large number of subject fields. Describes illustrative innovations in numerous high schools in Illinois.

3. BRISTOW, WILLIAM H. "Co-operative Curriculum Development at the Secondary School Level," *High Points in the Work of the High Schools of New York City*, XXIV (June, 1942), 46-51.

Reports on the co-operative work in curriculum development and curriculum research carried on in New York City schools and indicates the possible contributions of the Curriculum Council in furthering development of the curriculum.

4. CRIM, DOROTHY. "Wartime Pupils Face New Problems," *Clearing House*, XVII (September, 1942), 14-17.

Stresses the importance of keeping curriculums and extra-curriculums flexible in order that they may meet new problems faced by wartime pupils, such as the questions of jobs and marriage versus school.

5. DOANE, DONALD C. *The Needs of Youth*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 848. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. viii+150.

The report of an investigation into the needs of youth, utilizing the opinions of high-school pupils in Oakland, California; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; and rural Nebraska and Virginia.

6. FONVILLE, MARY SUE BEAM. "The Relation of the Curriculum to Mental Health," *High School Journal*, XXIV (October, 1941), 259-70.

An exposition of the relation of the curriculum to mental health, in theory and in practice. Gives conclusions regarding curriculum

content and organization and procedures to be followed. Includes a list of references.

7. *General Aspects of Instruction: Learning, Teaching, and the Curriculum*. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XII, No. 3. Washington: American Educational Research Association, 1942. Pp. 255-358.

A summary of recent research in curriculum-making, methods of teaching (including audio-visual aids), activity education, the library, and educational psychology. Generic as to school level.

8. *General Education in the American High School*. Edited by a Sub-committee of the General Education Committee, Commission on Curricula of Secondary Schools and Institutions of Higher Education of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, B. Lamar Johnson, chairman. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1942. Pp. xvi+320.

A co-ordinated compilation of chapters by specialists, dealing with various aspects of the problem of general education at the secondary-school level. The papers are grouped in two parts—the first dealing with background and bases, and the second with proposed and actual programs. Prophetic of emerging emphases.

9. GILES, H. H., McCUTCHEM, S. P., and ZECHIEL, A. N. *Exploring the Curriculum*. Adventure in American Education, Vol. II. New York: Harper & Bros., 1942. Pp. xxiv+362.

The Curriculum Staff of the Commission on the Relation of School and College, Progressive Education Association, presents its unified point of view toward the curriculum work of the thirty schools in the Eight-Year Study.

10. HARBESON, JOHN W. "Junior Colleges and Total War," *Junior College Journal*, XIII (October, 1942), 67-69.

Lists numerous things that the junior college can do in its total-war effort, including reorganization of the curriculum.

11. HARNLY, PAUL W. "A Case History in Curriculum Development," *Curriculum Journal*, XIII (May, 1942), 206-10.
The principal of the Senior High School at Grand Island, Nebraska, describes briefly a program of curriculum development undertaken in his school.
12. HARTFORD, ELLIS F., and SEAY, MAURICE F. "The Adaptation of Regional Research to Educational Uses," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XV (November, 1941), 185-92.
Explains the organization of the Advisory Panel on Regional Materials of Instruction for the Tennessee Valley Authority and considers the need for "co-ordination of the efforts of regional and local agencies in the development and use of instructional materials." Generic as to school level.
13. HOPKINS, L. THOMAS. "Making the Curriculum Functional," *Teachers College Record*, XLIII (November, 1941), 129-36.
Advocates curriculum-planning by pupils who are learning to live the democratic process daily, under the co-operative guidance of adults.
14. LAMOREAUX, LILLIAN A. "Santa Barbara's Design for Education," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVII (April, 1942), 230-34.
An account of the curriculum-revision program of the Santa Barbara city schools, which produced a six-year plan providing a design for continuous learning experiences divided into two areas, namely, core and special-interest programs.
15. MACCONNELL, CHARLES M. "Core Studies in the New School of Evanston Township High School," *School Review*, L (April, 1942), 264-73.
An account of the objectives and the planning of the core curriculum in the New School of the Evanston (Illinois) Township High School, together with a statement of teacher adjustments and pupil evaluations.
16. MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "How North Central Association High Schools Meet the Needs of Their Students," *North Central Association Quarterly*, XVI (April, 1942), 424-29.
Generalizes results from twenty-four hundred questionnaires from schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools regarding the needs of pupils, reorganization of curriculums better to meet these needs, and evaluation procedures employed to determine whether or not pupils' needs are being met.
17. MERIAM, JUNTUS L. "The High School Curriculum," *Phi Delta Kappan*, XXV (September, 1942), 13-16.
Proposes a new curriculum program consisting of two types of activities—gainful occupations and civic-social participations—to equip youth for the present and to assist in their social adjustment.
18. MERIDETH, GEORGE H., and LEMBKE, GLENN L. "The Curriculum Pattern in Pasadena Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVII (May, 1942), 293-96.
An exposition of the curriculum pattern in Pasadena secondary schools, Grades VII-XIV, inclusive, and the relation of required to elective subjects.
19. PALM, REUBEN R. "Curriculum Experimentation in Laboratory Schools of State Teachers Colleges," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXVII (November, 1941), 629-32.
Reports on the scope and the types of curriculum development and experimentation in laboratory schools of state teachers' colleges.
20. PIERCE, PAUL R. *Developing a High-School Curriculum*. New York: American Book Co., 1942. Pp. xiv+368.
Describes the program of the Wells High School of Chicago, widely known for having

worked out a significant vitalization of its offering and activities.

21. REEVES, FLOYD W. "What Kind of Secondary Education Tomorrow?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (March, 1942), 98-107.

Emphasizes what must be done in secondary schools if they "are to assume the role that is waiting for them in the construction of a working democracy in a world that must be rebuilt."

22. *Secondary Education and the War*. Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Vol. XXVI, No. 108. Washington: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1942. Pp. 246.

This large issue of the *Bulletin* consists of two parts—one containing pronouncements of heads of government agencies concerning wartime needs, outlines of proposed wartime courses, etc.; the other, descriptions of numerous actual wartime programs in the schools.

23. SMITHEY, W. R. (editor). *Some Features of the Virginia Program of Secondary Education*. Secondary Education in Virginia, No. 28. Charlottesville, Virginia: University of Virginia, 1942. Pp. 94.

Contains several papers bearing on special aspects of the secondary-school curriculum, including "Drill in Arithmetic," "Economic Imperialism and War," "Grammar in Secondary Schools," "Social Mathematics for the Senior High School," "Units for a Course in High School Economics," and "Six Specimen Units."

24. WRINKLE, WILLIAM L., and GILCHRIST, ROBERT S. *Secondary Education for American Democracy*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1942. Pp. xiv+554.

A general treatise on the secondary school, containing portions describing and discussing innovating forms of curriculum organization and procedures in teaching and evaluation.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION¹

25. CARROTHERS, CHESTER C. "Visitation Should Follow Workshops," *Curriculum Journal*, XII (December, 1941), 365-67.

A brief statement in advocacy of follow-up visits to teachers who have participated in summer workshops. Generic as to school level.

26. COULTER, KENNETH C. "Supervision 'by Ear' Voted Down," *Nation's Schools*, XXIX (June, 1942), 26.

Reports results of an inquiry, including eighty high schools and junior high schools in Ohio and New Jersey, into the use of radio or sound systems for supervisory purposes. The replies were from both principals and teachers.

27. DICKTER, M. RICHARD. "Technique for Teaching with Audio-visual Aids," *School Review*, L (March, 1942), 192-95.

Describes various procedures to be followed in teaching with audio-visual aids, such as film strips, slides, radio, records, and transcriptions.

28. DICKTER, M. RICHARD. "Advantages and Limitations of Available Visual Aids," *School Review*, L (May, 1942), 362-67.

Gives description, method of use, advantages, and disadvantages of visual aids, such as opaque pictorial materials, the glass slide, the thirty-five-millimeter filmstrip, three-dimensional pictures, and motion pictures.

29. EDMISTON, R. W., and BRADDOCK, R. W. "A Study of the Effect of Various Teaching Procedures upon Observed Group Attention in the Secondary School," *Journal of Educational Psychology*, XXXII (December, 1941), 665-72.

¹ See also Item 39 (Caswell) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1942, number of the *Elementary School Journal*; Item 445 (Pistor) in the September, 1942, number; and Item 682 (Raths) in the December, 1942, number of the same journal.

A comparison of attention scores under different teaching procedures, with implied qualifications of good teaching procedure. Twelve secondary schools in Ohio participated in the study.

30. EGGLESTON, RALPH. "Teaching Pupils How To Study," *Nation's Schools*, XXX (July, 1942), 24-25.

A brief description and evaluation of how-to-study instruction as carried on in the home rooms of a six-year secondary school.

31. GOULD, GEORGE. "Do Principals Supervise and How?" *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (May, 1942), 67-82.

The subtitle is "A Survey of Supervisory Practices in the Secondary Schools of Pennsylvania." Among types of evidence reported are teaching service required of principals, secretarial assistance and administrative assistants provided for principals, types of supervisory organization, purposes of classroom visitation, and principals' ratings of various supervisory activities.

32. HILL, GEORGE E. "Some Professional Beliefs and Opinions of Secondary-School Teachers," *School Review*, XLIX (November, 1941), 657-67.

Reports studies using a check list of seventy-five "principles" of methods of teaching, given to 150 experienced secondary-school teachers and 100 inexperienced prospective teachers.

33. HOBAN, CHARLES F., JR. *Focus on Learning*. Prepared for the Committee on Motion Pictures in Education. Washington: American Council on Education, 1942. Pp. xiv+172.

This summary volume of the Motion Picture Project of the American Council on Education reviews the role of motion pictures in education, considers types of educational films, and indicates the teacher's responsibilities in selecting and using films.

34. JESSEN, CARL A., and SPANTON, W. T. *Supervision of Secondary Education as a Function of State Departments of Educa-*

tion. Studies of State Departments of Education, Monograph No. 9. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 6, 1940. Pp. vi+44.

A discussion of the "history and development of secondary-school supervision, the supervisory personnel, the functions performed, the activities engaged in, and the working relationships which facilitate supervision at this level."

35. MACLATCHY, JOSEPHINE H. (editor). *Education on the Air*. Twelfth Yearbook of the Institute for Education by Radio. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1941. Pp. x+358.

A volume of proceedings which annually presents a usable overview of radio in education. Generic as to school level.

36. *Radio in the Classroom*. Report of the Wisconsin Research Project in School Broadcasting. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1942. Pp. 204.

An exposition and a presentation of findings of controlled experimentation in classroom use of radio.

37. RORER, JOHN ALEXANDER. *Principles of Democratic Supervision*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 858. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1942. Pp. vi+230.

A democratic philosophy of education exemplified in a critical study of principles of supervision proposed as a basis for education in this country. Generic as to school level.

38. SEXSON, JOHN A. "Is Special Supervision on the Way Out?" *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, LXXIX (1941), 607-11.

Presents the point of view that special supervision need not be on the way out if adequate account is taken of certain "factors" which are enumerated. A statement,

generic as to school level, by an administrator who is conversant with modern theory and practice.

39. SYMONDS, PERCIVAL M. "Supervision as Counseling," *Teachers College Record*, XLIII (October, 1941), 49-56.

Presents the supervisor as a counselor concerned with the teacher's attitudes and adjustments rather than as an educator concerned with the teacher's methods and skills. Generic as to school level.

40. TAYLOR, WARREN. "The Meaning of Teaching," *Educational Record*, XXII (October, 1941), 506-20.

A basic consideration of the capacities of the individual student, the nature of subject matter, and the role of the teacher in effective instruction.

41. WEERSING, FREDERICK J. "The Study Paves Way for New Methods," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XVII (March, 1942), 155-57.

Implications of the Eight-Year Study for methods of teaching.

42. WILES, KIMBALL. "Suggestions for the Guidance of Beginning Core Teachers,"

Educational Method, XXI (April, 1942), 354-56.

Suggests preparations to be made and steps to be taken by beginning core-curriculum teachers, which will enable pupils to engage in the activities of most value to them.

43. WILLEY, GILBERT S. "Instructional Leadership in the Junior and Senior High Schools of Denver," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (May, 1942), 61-65.

Reports trends in instructional leadership in the Denver schools through participation in the national study of teacher education sponsored by the Commission on Teacher Education.

MEASUREMENT¹

44. FRENCH, WILL. "Measures of Maturity vs. Units of Credit," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXVI (March, 1942), 72-78.

Recommends that the National Association of Secondary-School Principals take the lead in developing measures of maturity of pupils to replace units of credit.

¹ See also Item 639 (Smith, Tyler, and Others) in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1942, number of the *School Review*.

Educational Writings

*

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A CRITIQUE OF AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY.—Edgar W. Knight has joined the ranks of Flexner, Foerster, and Hutchins as a severe critic of the philosophy which, he maintains, is inherent in the American school system. In a vigorous essay¹ Knight proposes and seeks to demonstrate but one contention, namely, that too many American educators have succumbed to the fallacy that the concepts of change and of progress are identical or at least highly correlated.

The argumentation is elaborated in three sections, the first of which depicts the unique historical development of the idea of human progress. Unknown in classical or Christian cultures, this concept of progress slowly emerged in the eighteenth century to become, in less than a hundred years, one of the most dynamic of all social forces. The author cites many examples to document his assertion that this newborn idea monopolized the thought of the great scientists, who in turn promised the world peace and prosperity as inevitable outcomes of the triumph of progress.

In the second part of the essay Knight contends that, by an unfortunate trick of fate, American education began its phenomenal growth just at the time when the worship of progress, having lost whatever spiritual connotations it originally possessed, was gradually becoming identified with the acquisition of wealth and material goods. Hence even early educational writers like Horace Mann did not hesitate to emphasize

the monetary as well as the cultural values of all types of learning. Indoctrinated with this philosophy of materialistic progress, American education reached a state of premature development in the 1920's—the golden age, or, as Knight prefers, the gilded age, of the cult of progress.

The third section describes the period of disillusion beginning in 1929, when crushing blows shook the proud foundations of all American institutions, including our educational system. Never was more bitter criticism leveled against our schools than in the years from 1930 to 1940. Knight asserts that, in this decade of faultfinding, the chief complaint was that educators in the United States had taken it for granted that, as long as intense motion and movement in the educational system were perceptible, progress must be going on more or less automatically. Forgotten was the fact that the very notion of progress implies more than mere change, motion, activity; that it connotes direction, movement from a definite starting-point toward a defined goal. It is precisely this lack of definiteness about purposes of life in general and educational purposes in particular which, Knight argues, constitutes America's most serious educational mistake. In brief, our education confounds progress with change and therefore lacks perspective.

Knight's stimulating thoughts provide a basis for some broad considerations which should prove helpful for any whose day-to-day literary diet may have been somewhat overseasoned with growth curves and coefficients of correlation. Certainly the author's timely warnings deserve thoughtful consideration on the part of any educator who feels

¹ Edgar W. Knight, *Progress and Educational Perspective*. The Kappa Delta Pi Lecture Series. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. xvi+148. \$1.50.

he has important contributions to make in post-war educational planning.

The whole essay is open to criticism because of its labored wordiness. However, the piling-up of historical evidence, though detracting from the continuity of thought, does help to strengthen the author's arguments. Unfortunately the essay is often spoiled by a defect common in attempts to handle broad problems in a limited space: the use of excessive generalizations and catchy phrases which need qualifications if they are to correspond to actual facts. Several such phrases could be cited; for example, the statement that theology taught that children were "imps of the devil" (p. 116). Such an unqualified assertion indicates either Knight's ignorance of theology or his willingness to use a catchy phrase which merely caricatures the truth. Finally, as Alfred L. Hall-Quest notes in the Editorial Introduction, Knight raises many extremely important problems. Although he does not offer an equal number of clear solutions, it may be said that, in the raising of these issues, he has done us a distinct service.

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EVERY TEACHER A TEACHER OF READING.—Reading is a system of skills, some of which are always employed by the reader, while others are applied under certain conditions and not under conditions of a different sort. It is through training and experience in the reading situations that normally arise in science, social studies, English, mathematics, and the other subjects of the curriculum that the pupil best learns which skills are appropriate for diverse types of materials and of reading objectives. Reading is also a system of attitudes, methods of reasoning, and forms of behavior, with potentialities of power and refinement so unlimited that its complete development cannot be achieved at one level (the primary school) nor by one teacher (the reading teacher). Therefore the

responsibility of guiding and stimulating growth in reading must be discharged by subject-matter teachers, by administrators, by librarians, and by all persons who minister to the needs of pupils from Grade I to Grade XVI.

This doctrine of "every teacher a teacher of reading" has been preached in the abstract for many years until, through constant repetition, it had lost its original import and spirit. With the printed report¹ of the Proceedings of the 1942 Conference on Reading held at the University of Chicago, it has been rescued from the ranks of hackneyed educational slogans and invested with rich meaning and concrete significance.

The purposes of the publication, and of the conference itself, are two: (1) "to identify the major problems that should be attacked by school systems in concerted efforts to improve their reading programs" and (2) "to consider the various steps which teachers and school officers may adopt . . . in studying these problems and in attaining the broader ends through reading for which schools exist in a democracy" (p. 3). In accomplishing these purposes, the contributors subordinate theory to practice and buttress their generalizations with descriptions of co-operative programs to improve reading which are operating in schools throughout the country.

Some idea of the range of topics treated and of the caliber of the contributors may be gained from the following samples. Amelia Traenkenschuh, the director of curriculum and instruction in the public schools at Rock Island, Illinois, summarizes procedures of training in-service teachers which promote the solution of reading problems in the pri-

¹ *Co-operative Effort in Schools To Improve Reading*. Proceedings of the Conference on Reading Held at the University of Chicago, Vol. IV. Compiled and edited by William S. Gray. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 56. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. xii+338. \$2.00.

mary grades. Alice Flickinger, teacher of speech and English in Lake Bluff School, Shorewood, Wisconsin, traces the genesis of a school-wide plan to decrease the reading of comic books by middle-grade children. John H. Cooper, chairman of the social-studies department in Tower Hill School, Wilmington, Delaware, shows how reading can be taught in connection with social-studies units. Henry Meckel, a teacher, discusses the tests administered in the University High School at Oakland, California, and the uses made of these tests. E. W. Wiltse, superintendent of schools at York, Nebraska, describes measures for appraising the strengths and weaknesses of reading programs. B. Lamar Johnson, dean of instruction and librarian of Stephens College, tells how librarians can exert a beneficial influence on reading instruction. President Hutchins of the University of Chicago narrates his life-history and adorns his tale with the moral that "literacy is not enough."

Not the least valuable part of the book is the concluding section, wherein are outlined ways by which superintendents, principals, supervisors, teachers, clinical examiners, and remedial-reading teachers can participate in a reading program and insure its success.

Although *Co-operative Effort in Schools To Improve Reading* contains fifty-six discussions, each of which is focused on a specific topic, no phase of the general subject is neglected. Indeed, Professor Gray's careful organization of the conference has obviated the disadvantages of discursiveness and repetitiveness that often characterize publications to which many persons have contributed, while it has retained the advantages of interest and provocativeness that are produced by a variety of styles and points of view.

Last summer a superintendent of schools of a Wisconsin city told the reviewer that the 1942 Conference on Reading at the University of Chicago was bound to have a great effect on daily classroom and administrative practice. Even the most captious reviewer could not quarrel with this statement. Cer-

tainly the report of the conference will make many schools conscious of the necessity of co-ordinating their work in reading and will help many more to construct and implement a program in which every teacher and every school officer will actually be a teacher of reading.

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REDIRECTING VOCATIONAL CHOICE.—The counselor working with students in either high school or college generally views with a great deal of concern the limited scope within which the vocational choices of the majority of students fall. Any material placed at the counselor's disposal which may be used in an attempt to broaden the horizon of the student in his effort to find his life-work is a welcome and valuable contribution to the profession. A recent publication,¹ written primarily for use with boys, has as its aim:

To dissipate the worship of "white-collar" work; to present the attractiveness of manual work; to show that all useful work is dignified and worthy of pursuit; to fire youth's imagination in thinking about new types of careers; and finally to contribute to the national welfare by encouraging a more wholesome distribution of workers among the occupations [p. xii].

The book is a companion volume for use with an earlier publication by the same authors, treating the problem from the standpoint of work with girls.

In this book the authors have presented informative material concerning selected fields "which need to be called to the attention of young men" (p. xi). The presentation is organized under eight sections interestingly entitled: "Wanted—Skilled Craftsmen," treating metal trades, building trades, automotive and aviation trades, and "other trades"; "Best Business and Professional

¹ Harry Dexter Kitson and Mary Rebecca Lingenfelter, *Vocations for Boys*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1942. Pp. xii+332. \$2.50.

Opportunities," which discusses government service, engineering, office-work, advertising, transportation and communication, personnel work, and public and industrial relations; "For the Elect Only," which treats art, journalism, science, healing arts, ministry, and law and politics; "Risky but Rewarding," discussing farming, finance, radio, sales work, etc.; "On Dress Parade," treating the armed services of the country, foreign service, and aviation and other public-service work; "Ladies First—but Men Too," which discusses teaching, social work, librarianship, homemaking, and beauty doctors; "When Hobbies Grow Up," describing photography, handicrafts, sports, etc.; and "Opportunities for the Handicapped." A closing chapter discusses some general principles to be observed by the young person in selecting and getting started in his life-work.

The volume should be a welcome addition to the libraries of persons working with boys who are beginning to think through the problem of vocational choice—whether in high school or in college. It is written in an informal, nontechnical style that invites extensive reading. For each of the vocations discussed the authors describe the place of the vocation in relation to other occupations, something of the nature of the vocation and the conditions under which the work is carried on, the personal qualifications and the training required, the possibilities for advancement, the general range of financial return to be expected, and the probable future development of the vocation. Opportunities in the federal service are pointed out in connection with those vocations offering such possibilities.

Though the authors have set out to show that many of the fields of work neglected by boys in making their choices bring "richer rewards than many of the 'white-collar' jobs" (p. xi), they have, unfortunately, used "For the Elect Only" as a title of the section which includes some of the commonly selected vocations (medicine, law, science). Though it is recognized that these fields re-

quire higher degrees of intelligence than do some of the other fields, the implication that persons working in these fields are the "elect" may serve to defeat one of the purposes of the book: to show that all useful work is dignified and desirable provided that one possesses the pattern of abilities necessary for the work chosen.

The counselor will find this volume of value in opening up the world of occupations to the boy who has thought little about, or who has taken for granted, the kind of work for which he is best suited. It will need to be supplemented by more systematic and detailed treatments designed to give the boy a more adequate knowledge of the particular occupation under consideration. A very helpful feature of the book in this respect is a reading list which includes for each of the occupations discussed (1) references to descriptive, systematic treatments concerning the particular occupation; (2) biographical material concerning men who have made a contribution in the occupation under consideration; and (3) fictional material based on life in the occupation concerned. The readability of the book and the suggestions included in the reading list commend the volume for use in high-school years—the time when boys should begin to explore the world of occupations.

DONALD M. MACKENZIE

*North Central Association of Colleges
and Secondary Schools*

ATTRACTIVE AND AUTHORITATIVE MATERIALS FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES.—Many aspects of the social environment in the modern community have been richly portrayed by the authors of the Basic Social Education Series.¹ Traditionally the text-

¹ Basic Social Education Series (for junior high school): *America's Oil* by Russell W. Cumley (edited by Helen M. Strong); *Looking Ahead: Choosing and Preparing for a Vocation* by E. W. Andrews (edited by J. W. M. Rothney); *Money and Banks* by Margaret M. Thomson; *The Newspaper in American Life* by Walter A. Wittich;

book has had profound influence on education in America. Rather than textbooks we now have text-booklets. Each booklet of this series may easily be read at one sitting by the average junior high school pupil. The reviewer is of the opinion that the authors have accomplished much in the way of motivation which will lead to further and more comprehensive study of the social environment. The teacher of social studies in the junior high school has need for more materials describing the social environment of the modern community, and these booklets are written in a way that will appeal to junior high school pupils. The authors of these publications have aided the pupils and teachers at this point.

Special mention of three titles will illustrate the character of this series. *The Wise Consumer* makes a good start by beginning with the regular day's activities of two adolescent youngsters. The reader follows Johnny and Margaret as they go about the home and the community, consuming and living like any normal boy and girl. Then the author introduces the reader to the broader aspects of the relations of the modern consumer. The interdependence of the consumer and all other groups in a modern American community is graphically illustrated. The consumer is given a few warnings by the author. Hints are provided with regard to attempts at exploitation through advertising. The tragic experience of the "newlyweds" should impress all readers. The story of the persuasive salesman and "Mrs. Buylots" adds humor to the discussion. The author has done much to point out, largely through implication, the numerous malpractices in present-day merchandising. All honest business establishments will

Our Inland Seas, the Great Lakes by Janet Hull Zimmermann and Frank F. Bright; *Planning Cities for Today and Tomorrow* by Fred A. Crane; *Trade and Commerce* by Frederick V. Waugh; *The Wise Consumer* by Ruth Barry. Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson & Co., 1941, 1942. Pp. 48 (each). \$0.32 (each).

welcome a publication of this type. An interest in, and a knowledge of, consumer education can make a large contribution to happy and successful social living.

The complexity of modern social conditions has made programs of guidance a real necessity in the educational task today. *Looking Ahead*, which concerns the choice of, and the preparation for, a career, will prove of value to both pupil and counselor. The author writes in the manner of a "letter from a father to his son." The writing is personalized from the outset. The booklet is well supplied with visual aids, such as charts, and reproductions of photographs. The vocabulary is well within the ability of the average junior high school pupil. The booklet is recommended, by the reviewer, as a motivating device for the course in occupations or other careers courses.

The influence of the press on the social life of the community is scarcely exceeded by any other institution. It is highly desirable, then, that the youth obtain a comprehensive understanding of the development of opinions by collecting news and information on all current problems. While *The Newspaper in American Life* provides some help in this direction, undue emphasis is given, in the opinion of the reviewer, to the mechanical and physical development of the newspaper. This type of understanding may be secured through a visit to the local newspaper plant. However, six of the forty-eight pages are devoted to a discussion of the importance of a free press in our democracy. The reviewer would argue for still more emphasis on this phase of the newspaper in American life.

This series will fit in well with any adopted sets of social-science textbooks. These booklets make splendid supplementary reading for fields other than social science.

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